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Attitude towards English and Filipino as Correlates of Cognition toward Mother Tongue: An Analysis among would-be Language Teachers

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Abstract

Language Attitude has recently once more gained currency to language researchers due to changing language policies across countries. As local languages are now allocated an essential space in the curriculum of early education, the need to probe would-be language teachers' belief towards children's mother tongue cross-referenced with their attitude relative to the prestigious and national language – English and Filipino, respectively – is the call of the time. This quantitative-correlational research investigation gathered data from 330 prospective language teachers through the utilization of three (3) survey-questionnaires. It was found that there exists a positive correlation between attitudes toward Filipino and cognition towards Mother Tongue. However, a negative correlation between attitude toward English and Cognition toward Mother Tongue was also a result yielded in the study.

***Keywords:** Attitude, English, Filipino, Cognition, Mother Tongue*

Introduction

Background of the study

Alieto (2018) maintains that the success of education is largely dependent on the language chosen to be the medium of instruction most notably in the context of early education. Therefore, choosing the language of instruction is critical and be done after great analysis of things. This contention echoes the claim of Ejieh (2004) that the policy determining the language of instruction is an essential and critical concern. Supportive of this is the discussion of Perez and Alieto (2018) that the language chosen as language of instruction could either lead to educational victory or failure.

The question relating to which language should be used in early education is one that has been debated for a long time. However, research investigations have found and confirmed

the importance of using children's first language. One of the earliest studies that investigated the benefits of first language use among young learners (L1) is that of Thomas and Collier (1997). The said study reported that students are able to succeed in using the second language (L2) if the same students are able to enhance or attain proficiency in their L1 which leads to academic success and cognitive development.

Another study supporting the given claim on the importance of L1 use in early education is the study of Perez and Alieto (2018). Their investigation with 71 students enrolled in the grade 2 level revealed that Mother tongue or L1 proficiency is associated with mathematics achievement. It means that the students who have good command of their L1 are able to understand and perform well in the subject Mathematics when the said subject is taught in the language of the children.

Moreover, research have documented dire consequences of education taught in languages yet to be learned by the learners. Jhingran (2005) noted that young learners educated not in their L1 languages are simply doing rote learning. Understanding of concepts and discussion is hard to come by when the language that is supposed to serve as a vehicle of learning becomes a barrier instead.

Set against these contexts and backgrounds, it imperative that would-be language teachers' cognition towards the Mother Tongue be explored and determined as cognition plays an influential role in the teachers' classroom practice and policy implementation (Cummins, 2000). Moreover, this study aimed to draw relationships between the respondents' attitudes towards English and Filipino with their cognition towards the Mother Tongue.

Research Questions

This study, involving pre-service teachers, intended to provide essential data relevant to the attitude of the respondents towards the two (2) languages, English and Filipino. The following are the specific questions aimed to be addressed in the study:

1. What is the language attitude of the respondents towards the languages English and Filipino?
2. What is the cognition of the respondents towards the Mother Tongue?
3. Is there a significant correlation between the respondents' attitudes towards English and Filipino and Cognition towards Mother Tongue?

Hypothesis of the study

H₀: There is no significant relationship between the attitudes of the respondents towards English and Filipino and cognition towards Mother Tongue.

Review of Literature

Language Attitude

The importance of the investigation of language attitude (LA) lies on the idea that it shall be a good source of information useful for the prediction of linguistic scenes as contended by Wang and Ladegaard (2008). Also, research investigations on LA are needed in the determination of sound language policy (Callan & Gallois, 1987).

Moreover, Moreno Fernandez (1998) explained that research on language attitude is for tracing social regard towards a language or its varieties which may find use in different dimensions. This means that language attitude investigations are essential to be performed most especially in the context of the Philippines where the landscape of language policy has recently been changed.

Further, Cummins (2000) noted that teacher education among others impacts education in a multicultural context. In reference to this, the proposed study on prospective mother tongue teachers aims to gather essential research data to inform teacher training institutions as regards the nature of language attitude (LA) and its impact toward teacher classroom practice and policy implementation at the grassroots level thereby informing decisions and course of actions essential in sustaining those who lack interest and maintaining those of developed one. Therefore, the proposed investigation of the LA of would-be-mother tongue teachers can inform decisions and course of action among Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs)

Cognition towards Mother Tongue

Cognition, as claimed by Borg (2013, cited in Alieto, Devanadera and Buslon, 2019), is non-tangible and a construct that is associated to the cognitive dimension. It is associated with what a person knows, believes and thinks. Moreover, the reason for the study of cognition is based on the claim of the same author that it influences practices. Therefore, it can be inferred that teachers' cognition towards a language serves as a potent force determining teacher practice in so far as language use and language policy implementation is noted.

Cognition, in the context of this present study, refers to the beliefs teachers held specifically towards the mother tongue. Teachers' beliefs are fundamental considerations in education. Hence, it a research construct investigated in many aspects and dimensions. One of the most recent studies on teachers' belief is that of Omega and Alieto (2019) which investigated pre-school teachers' perspective towards play as a means of teaching literacy. Another study that includes the investigation of teachers' cognition is that of Cumming (1989) which investigated the construct in the context of decisions realized with regard to curriculum

development. An additional study on cognition is that of Gatbonton (1999) which looked into the teaching knowledge of seasoned educators. However, it can be noted that these studies have not accounted cognition towards mother tongue.

No study was conducted investigating cognition towards mother tongue, especially in the context of the Philippines which has recently shifted from using English as a language of instruction (LoI) in early education to using mother tongue. An exception, however, is the research work of Alieto (2019) with 1080 education students at their penultimate year. The study carried multiple purposes. One is to determine the respondents' cognition towards mother tongue used as LoI. Second is to identify the willingness of the would-be teachers to teach using mother tongue as the language of instruction and the willingness to teach mother as a subject. Third and last is the determination of the relationship between prospective teachers' cognition towards mother tongue and their extent of willingness to teach in the MT and to teach the MT. Along this line, it is pointed that the study has accounted cognition towards MT, but has not included an essential variables in the study of cognition towards MT – attitude towards two (2) important languages, Filipino and English. Moreover, Griva and Chostelidou (2012) claimed that teachers' belief influences not only classroom practices, but also policy implementation which makes studying teachers' beliefs or cognition all the more important.

Pre-service Teachers and the Mother Tongue-based Education

Language attitude studies were explored with different respondents. Many of which were conducted with students. One example is the probe of Lai (2005) which involved informants who are secondary school students considered to be the first post-colonial generation. Contextualized in Hong Kong, a quantitative study was carried out to 1048 participants. Another is that of Wang and Ladegaard (2008) which is an investigation carried out to 174 secondary school students aged 13-16. Additional is the LA exploration of Olsen and Olsen (2010) involving 62 subjects who are all girls from a secondary school. Added to the list is the investigation of Navarro-Villarroel (2011) who made comparison of attitudes of two groups of English-speaking students coming from the same grade level. In the same study, one group of students is enrolled in a Spanish two-way immersion program; on the other hand, the second comparative group is students enrolled in an English only program. An addition to the list is the conducted study of González-Riaño, Hevia-Artime & Fernández-Costales (2013) which aimed to provide insight about the LA and sociolinguistic awareness of the 217 participants graduating from their primary education, aged 11-12.

Some of the most recent studies on LA as central topic of investigation include that of Ajape, Mamat and Abdul Azeez (2015) which measured the attitude toward the learning of Arabic language of 288 Arab students across different universities in Nigeria. Another is that of Xie and Cavallaro (2016) that examined the attitude of 165 Chinese-English bilinguals in Singapore toward Mandarin-English bilingualism. An addition is the investigation of Eshghinejad (2016) which surveyed the attitude of 30 randomly selected English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners toward English in the University of Kashan. Another is that of Sicam and Lucas (2016), with the objective of determining attitudes of the bilingual participants toward Filipino and English, which surveyed a total of 473 Filipino high school students.

On the other hand, only a small number of researches account teachers as participants. One of the few includes that of Shafer and Shafer (1975) which interviewed a total of 64 teachers, representing a cross-section of the geographic areas, to determine their LA toward their learners' language. Added to this is the empirical investigation of Smith (2010) which probed 28 elementary and 28 high school teachers. The mentioned study determined the reported attitudes on the survey of teachers in rural low incidence English Language Learner (ELL) School. Another is that of Burton (2013) which found that teachers are of the belief that MT use as MoI should not go beyond grade 1. This attitude is rooted on the view of the respondents that between their mother tongue, and English, the latter is still better to learn. In reference to this contention of teachers, Tupas (2015) claimed that such belief is not in consonance to the findings of researchers regarding the length of time needed to expose children to their MTs. He further claimed that the very limited time desired for the teaching of MTs is reflective of the strong preference for learning English.

Another study is that of Khejeri (2014) which investigated teachers' attitude toward the use of MT as LoI in Hamis District of Kenya. The findings show that the mother tongue was less valued as compared to English. The lukewarm reception of teachers found in the study towards the MT became the basis for the promotion of the mother tongue through publication of instructional materials to endorse the mother tongue as a medium of instruction and as a subject. More scarce are studies conducted involving pre-service teachers. Ejieh (2004) investigated the students who were in their penultimate year in their education courses specializing primary education. Results show that the respondents exhibit a negative attitude toward the use of mother tongue and the teaching of it as a subject. Added to this list is the study conducted by Gursoy (2013) which aimed to determine the LA of 200 teacher-trainees toward English in the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

There is a dearth in literature in so far as studies conducted about the attitude of pre-service teachers towards English and Filipino associated with their cognition towards MT. This current study intends to fill the said gap as this investigation purposes to draw possible relationship between attitude towards English (henceforth noted as AtE) and attitude towards Filipino (henceforth noted as AtF) and cognition towards Mother Tongue.

Methodology

Research Design

The present research investigation is claimed to be quantitative-descriptive-correlational in design. It was noted to be descriptive because the study involves purposeful processes such as collection, tabulation and analysis of data to descriptively characterize phenomenon, identify a trend and determine relationship such in the case of this current study – utilizes simple statistical treatment (Calderon, 2006 cited in Rillo & Alieto, 2019).

Furthermore, survey questionnaires were utilized to collect data to carry out the objectives of the study which according to Dillman, Smith and Christian (2009, cited in Alieto and Rillo, 2018) is a practical and plausible approach when gathering of data from large sample size is accounted. Moreover, the study utilized neither treatment nor intervention being a non-experimental investigation (Torres & Alieto, 2019).

Respondents

In total the study, 330 BEEd students were enlisted to form the sample of the study. These participants came from five research sites. The youngest respondent is aged 18 while the oldest is aged 39. Most of the respondents are females (76% of the total sample size).

As the study is a cross-sectional one, the selection of the respondents includes consideration of set inclusion and exclusion criteria (Setia, 2016 found in Buslon & Alieto, 2019). To qualify as participants, the following are the criteria set in the selection: (1) the respondents must be a student enrolled in the Bachelor of Elementary Education or BEEEd program, (2) the respondent must be on practice teaching by the time the study is conducted, (3) the respondent should have at least 20 hours teaching contact using the mother tongue as medium of instruction (MoI), and (4) the respondent must have at least 20 hours contact time teaching the subject Mother Tongue.

On the other hand, the following conditions would disqualify a respondent from participating in the study: (1) the respondents is not on ‘full-time’ practice teaching, and (2) has only either contact hours for teaching in the MT or teaching MT as a subject, but not both.

The choice of the respondents is based on the claim of Alieto (2018) that pre-service teachers shall sooner or later be integrated as part of the teaching force either of a private or public learning institution they shall become part of the first line of implementers of policies. As such, the respondents have key roles to play in the success and failure of the language-in-education policy. Thus, research on cognition and attitude on language and language varieties should be conducted having them as respondents. In addition, Garcia-Nevarez, Stafford and Arias (2005, in Torres & Alieto, 2019) claimed that teachers' attitude is important as it relates to the achievement of students.

Research Instruments

The study employed the classic technique of using Likert questionnaire for the collection of descriptive data (Ubalde & Rosales, 2018). Three research tools were used in this investigation: (1) the Attitude towards English Questionnaire (AEngQ), (2) the Attitude towards Filipino Questionnaire (AFilQ), and (3) the Cognition towards Mother Tongue Questionnaire (CogMTQ). Moreover, the two (2) questionnaires (AEngQ and AFilQ) both include 36 items using a continuous six-point scale of strongly agree to strongly disagree. Both questionnaires were inspired from the studies of Sicam and Lucas (2016), Eshghinejad (2016), Khejeri (2014), Ndhlovu (2010), and Ejieh (2004).

On the other hand, for the case of the CogMTQ is of twenty-two (22) items inspired from Cummins (1984), Ejieh (2004), Jhingran (2005), Tupas (2006), Young (2009), MacKenzie (2009), Graham (2010), UNESCO (2011), Orwenjo (2012), and UNESCO (2013). Equal number of positive and negative statements composes the questionnaire which is alternately placed in the questionnaire – to minimize random set bias (Heppner & Heppner, 2004). In addition, the CogMTQ is of six-point scale questionnaire ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

Reliability of the instruments

The three (3) questionnaires were pilot tested for reliability. The two (2) questionnaires (AEngQ and AFilQ) yielded a reliability of Cronbach's alpha of 0.95 determined as '*excellent*' reliability (George & Maller, 2003). On the other hand, the CogMTQ yielded a reliability of Cronbach's alpha equal to 0.79 which means that the questionnaire developed to determine the Cognition of the respondents towards MT is of '*acceptable*' reliability.

Procedure

Access to the population was secured through correspondence set to institutions offering the BEEed program. Upon approval of the request, the researchers scheduled a meeting to discuss procedures of data collection with the different focal persons assigned by the schools. The meeting said lasted for about an hour. In the said meeting, it was agreed that the administration of the questionnaire shall be done in a convening hall in each of the institutions. Data gathering was conducted in five (5) institutions on five different dates to allow the researchers to sort collected questionnaires and to give ample time for the production of the questionnaires. The researchers personally conducted the data gathering in the different institutions.

Method of Analysis

For the determination of the respondents' AtE and AtF

To determine the language attitude of the respondents towards English and Filipino responses on the questionnaires were coded as follows: 6 for Strongly Agree (SA), 5 for Agree (A), 4 for Agree Slightly (AS), 3 for Disagree Slightly (DS), 2 for Disagree (D), and 1 for Strongly Disagree (SD). Afterwards, data was analyzed using SPSS, and the mean scores are given interpretation through the use of the following scale: 5.15 to 6.0 for '*Very Positive Attitude*', 4.32 to 5.14 for '*Positive Attitude*', 3.49 to 4.31 for '*Slightly Positive Attitude*', 2.66 to 3.48 for '*Slightly Negative Attitude*', 1.83 to 2.65 for '*Negative Attitude*', and 1.0 to 1.83 for '*Very Negative Attitude*'.

For the determination of the respondents' cognition towards Mother Tongue

To determine cognition of the respondents, responses of the respondents on the CogMTQ were first coded. Two (2) coding systems were employed as the questionnaire contains both positive and negative statements. For positive statement the code was as follows: 6 for Strongly Agree (SA), 5 for Agree (A), 4 for Agree Slightly (AS), 3 for Disagree Slightly (DS), 2 for Disagree (D), and 1 for Strongly Disagree (SD). However, for the negative statements, the code was as follows: 6 for Disagree Strongly (DS), 5 for Disagree (D), 4 for Disagree Slightly (DS), 3 for Agree Slightly (AS), 2 for Agree (A), and 1 for Strongly Agree (AS). Afterwards, data was analyzed using SPSS, and the arithmetic score is provided interpretation using the following scale: 5.15 to 6.0 for '*Very Positive Cognition*', 4.32 to 5.14 for '*Positive Cognition*', 3.49 to 4.31 for '*Slightly Positive Cognition*', 2.66 to 3.48 for '*Slightly*

Negative Cognition', 1.83 to 2.65 for *'Negative Attitude*', and 1.0 to 1.83 for *'Very Negative Cognition*'.

Statistical Treatments

To determine the respondents' attitude towards English and Filipino, descriptive statistics were used such as mean and standard deviation.

To determine the significant relationship between the respondents' attitudes towards English and Filipino and their Cognition towards Mother Tongue, Pearson Product Moment Coefficient (known also as Pearson *r*) was the statistical treatment utilized.

Results and Discussion

Respondents' Attitude towards English and Filipino

To determine the attitude of the respondents towards English and Filipino as the attitudinal objects of the study, the data taken from the questionnaires (AEngQ and AFilQ) was analyzed with descriptive statistics [mean (M) and standard deviation (D)]. Table 1 presents the result of the analysis and the interpretation of the result.

Table 1.0

AtE and AtF of the respondents

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
Attitude towards English	4.73	0.66	Positive Attitude
Attitude towards Filipino	4.50	0.63	Positive Attitude

Scale: 5.15 to 6.0 for *'Very Positive Attitude*', 4.32 to 5.14 for *'Positive Attitude*', 3.49 to 4.31 for *'Slightly Positive Attitude*', 2.66 to 3.48 for *'Slightly Negative Attitude*', 1.83 to 2.65 for *'Negative Attitude*', and 1.0 to 1.83 for *'Very Negative Attitude*'.

Table 1 provides the attitudes of the respondents towards English and Filipino. The analysis of the data revealed that the respondents held a 'positive' attitude towards both languages, English and Filipino. This means both languages are appreciated and favored by the respondents. The positivity towards English is speculated to be due to the symbolic and capital association with the language in question (Tupas, 2015). In addition, the same author contends that the perception that English is perceived to be the only language merchandisable in the world explains the positive attitude of many people in learning and using English.

Moreover, the result of this data revealing positivity towards the attitudinal objects, English and Filipino, reflects the result of the study conducted by Sicam and Lucas (2016) that divulge a positive stance towards both English and Filipino among high school students which results to the use of the languages in different social domains.

Cognition towards Mother Tongue

To determine the cognition of the respondents towards Mother Tongue, data drawn from the CogMTQ was analyzed. Treatment of the same data was limited to descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation). Table 2 shows the result and interpretation.

Table 2.0

Cognition of the respondents towards Mother Tongue

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
Cognition towards Mother Tongue	3.474	0.545	Slightly Negative Cognition

Scale: 5.15 to 6.0 for ‘*Very Positive Cognition*’, 4.32 to 5.14 for ‘*Positive Cognition*’, 3.49 to 4.31 for ‘*Slightly Positive Cognition*’, 2.66 to 3.48 for ‘*Slightly Negative Cognition*’, 1.83 to 2.65 for ‘*Negative Cognition*’, and 1.0 to 1.83 for ‘*Very Negative Cognition*’.

Table 2 provides the arithmetic mean of the cognition of the respondents toward the MT. It revealed that the respondents, on average, held a ‘slightly negative’ cognition towards the mother tongue. This means that many of the respondents rated the items in the questionnaire with options that ranges from slightly negative to strongly negative. Moreover, the minimum score (2.45) means that the lowest rate the respondents gave to describe their held belief towards the MT is described as ‘*negative cognition*’ whilst the maximum rate (5.73) is interpreted as ‘*very positive cognition*’.

This result is in consonance to the claims of different researchers that beliefs that devalue Mother Tongues exist among people (Tupas, 2015; Orwenjo, 2012; MacKenzie, 2009; Leung, 1998; Benson, 2005; Graham, 2010; Burton, 2013; Ejieh, 2004; Kioko, Ndung’u, Njoroge, & Mutiga, 2014). One seen explanation for this is that, as regards MT, many do not find it to have benefits beyond the classroom (Kioko et al., 2014). The misconception that MT gives no gains for the investments made is one great reasons explaining parents’ and learners’ resistance for the use of MT and preference for a foreign language. For many, education that develops skills in MT is futile because no economic benefit is linked with such competence. This perceptions clearly are void of the understanding of the economic opportunities associated

in learning MT which Hesmondhalgh (2002) termed as creative economy and Njogu and Gakuru (2009) called as communication industries. These authors claim that there is a growing market for MT which suggests that MT can be used for commercial needs and has economic value. As an illustration of the point, Oriare, Okello-Orlale and Ugungu (2010) claimed that MT is finding its way in the advertising world – in radio and television. The authors maintained that there is a market for local languages on radio as people prefer to listen to local content in a local language. Addedly, in the study of Kioko et al. (2004), the researchers have found that performing groups have successfully repackaged MT for greater economic value as it was used along the culture that comes with it in various entertainment creations. Thus, MT is making a mark not only in classroom but also in the economy (Kioko et al., 2004).

Correlation between attitudes towards English and Filipino and Cognition towards MT

To determine whether or not a significant relationship can be drawn between attitudes between attitude towards English and Filipino and Cognition towards Mother Tongue, Pearson *r* was used as the statistical treatment. Table 3 shows the analysis of the data and the interpretation.

Table 3.0

Correlation between attitudes towards English and Filipino and Cognition towards MT

Variables		r-value	p-value	Interpretation
Attitudes towards English	Cognition towards MT	-0.189	0.000*	Significant
Attitude towards Filipino		0.375	0.002**	Significant

Note: *significant at alpha = 0.01, **significant at alpha = 0.05

The table revealed that a significant correlation exists between the respondents' attitude towards English and their cognition towards MT and the respondents' attitude towards Filipino and cognition towards MT. For the significant correlation between the variables AtF and cognition towards mother tongue, the analysis revealed that the relationship is positive. This means that the respondents with positive attitude towards Filipino are the ones who are also positive towards the Mother Tongue. Conversely, the respondents with negative attitude towards Filipino are the very ones who have negative attitude towards the Mother Tongue. Therefore, attitude towards Filipino predicts attitude towards Mother Tongue; however, the relationship between the two is characterized to be 'weak' as provided by the r-value = 0.375. It is speculated that because the Mother Tongue is a local language as Filipino is the

appreciation and acceptance root from the appreciation of one identity and culture. Supportive of this claim is that of Zhang (2011) that attitude towards a certain language is in its real sense attitude towards the speakers of the language. This means that if one person appreciates the speaker of a certain language including the culture it represents appreciation towards that language comes to be. In this study, it is argued that as the Filipino language marks national identity and the Mother Tongue indexes cultural identity, and that appreciation towards these two cultural construct, as these two are interrelated and interconnected in the case of the Filipino respondents who are from the region where the Mother Tongue is not *Tagalog*, appreciation towards one leads to the appreciation of the other and vice-versa.

On the other hand, for the significant relationship between the variables AtE and cognition towards Mother Tongue, the statistical analysis revealed that relationship is negative. This means that those who favour English are exhibiting negative attitude towards Mother Tongue. Similarly, those who are showing positive stance towards the Mother Tongue are the ones holding negative attitude towards English. This study reflects the result of the investigation of Mahboob and Cruz (2013) which reported that the teachers and students sampled in their study valorised English, but devalue their Mother Tongue.

Furthermore, Benson (2005) blames the colonial thinking shaped through hundreds of years for the current negative perception towards MT in different areas which were once colonized. The colonial belief that local languages are of the uneducated and of the slaves while the colonial language is of the elite members and colonial lords has led to the cheapening of indigenous languages and overrating of English. The unfounded beliefs were not uprooted despite the fact that the once colonies were liberated; instead, they are flourishing as ideologies boxing people's thinking as regards the value and importance of local languages.

Moreover, Graham (2010) provided a more relatable explanation. She claimed that the beliefs placing premium on English is caused by the present set up of society. The Educational system gives prime importance on the learning and use of English. Evident to this is that it is the language not only of instruction but also of education itself. Lessons are delivered in English and examinations are in English. Moreover, teaching is in English and learning happens in English. This is not only true in the academe. In the world of work, the need to learn English is also found - from the very time an applicant writes a letter of intent to the interview that commences after the submission of application letters until the performance of work when has been successfully employed.

Additionally, to be able to work abroad, one must meet a certain English level of bandwidth score to qualify – an example is the International English Language Testing System

(IELTS). Further, if one non-native English speaker intends to enrol in English-speaking universities, one must pass the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). These according to Graham (2009) are more than enough reason explaining the great value people afford learning and mastering English which is not the case for local languages. This is corroborated with the claim of Hornberger and Vaish (2009 in Burton, 2003) that the value placed on English makes learning it a top priority among people and most of the time at the expense of local languages.

Conclusion

The results of the analyses of the data are basis for the following results:

One, the respondents are exhibiting favorable attitude towards English and Filipino, and appreciation of the two languages is speculated to stem from different reasons - English because of the economic advantage it is seen to provide when learned and Filipino because it indexed national identity. Second, the respondents are yet to be convinced with the benefits and importance of learning Mother Tongue. Third, the respondents' appreciation of the Mother Tongue is associated with their liking of the Filipino language. Last, as the English language is appreciated, the Mother Tongue, on the other hand, is devalued.

Implications

This investigation provides various implications. First, the Department of Education (DepEd) should conduct seminars and programs aimed at enhancing newly hired teachers' beliefs towards the use of mother tongue as would-be were found to be of slightly negative cognition with regard the use of MT in the early years of education. Moreover, Teacher Education Institutions (TEIs) should include in the curriculum courses that highlight ideas that learning MT does not in any way serve as hindrance towards learning English. The pre-service teachers are in possession of such misconception because they are not exposed to research works that debunk the notion. In addition, language education in the country must foster the understanding that being multilingual is the call of the present time; hence, the goal should be to learn as many languages as possible – including the native languages.

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Developing Teaching Materials on English for Specific Purpose on Tourism Program of HKBP Grade Eleven

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Abstract

The aims of this ESP research are the following: to develop teaching for vocational school for tourism at grade eleven, to describe the experts view and learners' perception on materials, to describe its result for revision, and to test hypothesis on control and experimental groups. The methodology used is descriptive quantitative and qualitative. Source of data are views from experts, teachers, students, and peers, collected through questionnaires. The

revision of qualitative questionnaires' experts and students is recommended. However the alternative hypothesis is accepted based on the t-test point of view.

Keywords: *Teaching materials, ESP, Tourism program*

Introduction

English is rapidly gaining status as a global language. This is true because the language is not only used in English-speaking countries but also in other countries where businesses flourish through negotiations delivered in English. In this case, English becomes the people's second or foreign language. The communication in English occurs in many contexts, like an advertisement, education and business, and the like. Many students from the basic level up to higher level attend English courses to develop their competence and skill in English. It means that they have various reasons to learn English. Basically, they want to master English actively in spoken and written form. In addition to that, most vacancies are requiring people who know English communicatively, to run their business. The competencies of students in English become an additional value to support their future careers in this globalized era. (Boroujeni & Fard, 2013) state that mastering English can guarantee one's opportunities and success in work, academic and social life. It is one of the reasons for non-native English to learn about English, especially for the learner of the tourism program. Based on this reason, it is important to prepare students with English.

In preparing the materials, the teacher needs to conduct need analysis because every English language learners need English for different purposes. Through need, analysis learning materials are developed indirectly. However, there are some steps to develop these materials. First, a teacher needs to develop the syllabus through learning the learners need, choose item by item from the syllabus then develop the materials. Second, the nature of learning materials and learning principles are something that needs to develop. The nature of learning is dealt with the teacher ability to differentiate between materials (content) and language. Like materials of listening can be chosen from cassette, CD-ROM, video and etc which able to help students to achieve the objective of learning which already formulated by the teacher. Learning principles are dealt with developing the content of materials. According to Tomlinson (1998), the materials should achieve the impact. In addition, He explains that the impact is achieved when the materials have a noticeable effect on learners, that is, when the learners' curiosity, interest, and attention are attracted. The impact of teaching can achieve through novelty.

A doctor should have the ability to explain the patients' health. Engineering needs to understand the vocabulary of engineering term. The ability of correspondence should be taught to the secretary. A receptionist should be equipped with the ability to welcome speech the foreign guest. The examples of need above are indications that different English purpose must be taught with specific materials. General English (GE) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) are two kinds of specification in teaching English as a foreign language in Indonesia. However, according to (Harsono, 2007) states that ESP is more demanded than that for GE because the availability of the ESP learning materials in public is very rare.

The differences between GE and ESP are on the need analysis, vocabulary and subject matter. The similarities both of them are placed in the need. Hutchinson and Waters (1989) state that the existence of the need cannot distinguish ESP from GE but the awareness of the need itself. (Far, 2008) states that General English refers to context such as the school in which needs and interest cannot be specified particularly. It means that General English provide a wide range to teach than English for Specific Purposes. The need analysis for English for Specific Purposes plays an important role to design teaching plan and learners' request. According to (Unal, 2014) states that ESP concentrates more on the teaching of meaning than grammar instruction and the basic point is to teach indirect relation with the real worlds of students in terms of content. In line to that, (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) describes that English for Specific Purposes is an approach in language teaching in which the content and method clearly depend on the learners' needs and interests. GE is learned by the senior high school while ESP is taught for vocational schools, like accounting, secretary, engineering and so forth.

Senior and vocational students learned English for a different subject matter. Vocational students do not have to learn as senior high students materials and vice versa. The teaching materials of vocational students is based on the demand and the need for job vacancy after they graduate from their school. The specific materials on ESP will help them to get a job. In fact, based on the researcher's observed, the materials of vocational school are still General English. The materials between senior high school and vocational high school are similar. Based on the curriculum of 2013 the materials between senior and vocational high school are almost exactly the same. It means that, less difference in teaching materials point of view between senior high school or GE and vocational school or ESP. In addition to that, Based on the observation and interview with the English teacher of tourism school, the teaching and learning process is occurred conventionally, content-oriented, less practice and text-book oriented.

In addition to that, teaching and learning process still dominated by the ESP teachers. It was to indicate that teacher centre activities occurred in the classrooms. In this case, most students were just writing, sitting and listening. In other words, most of them were passive since the materials in the ESP textbook for grade eleven on vocational of tourism school. Sometimes the ESP teachers focused on teaching grammar and reading than the other language skills and subskills. In addition to that, the ESP for tourism which can be found in the English textbook were not interesting. The materials are lack of picture, video and song. Based on the existing materials, it's provided with the translating text and the translation from English to Indonesia in the level of vocabulary. Teaching materials play a central role in teaching and learning, and as Garton and Graves (2014) in (Augusto-Navarro, 2015). In this case, the ESP materials are not contextualized to the topic. The materials are not link to the students explicitly. Vocational school of HKBP is closed to Lake Toba as tourism destination however the materials are out of context. It means that the teaching materials are not related to the part of Lake Toba. This case lead to the unmeaningfull teaching since unable to engage, motivate, to find new angle on those topics.

Based on the fact above, the researcher formulates some research objectives, they are 1) to design teaching materials, it plays a central role in teaching and learning ESP. 2) to examine the designing materials on content, media and design of teaching materials, 3) to describe the result of validation by colleague and students, 4) describing the result of the implementation try out. The formulation on objectives above related to the goals of the school. (Gardner., 1983) states the purpose of school should be to develop intelligence and to help people reach vocational and a-vocational goals that are appropriate to the particular spectrum of intelligence. Similar research has been conducted by (Al-khatib, 2005). In his study stated that orientations toward the importance of studying ESP as a means of communication in relation to the group of workers using it and the workplace in which it is used.

Literature Review

Teaching Materials

Tomlinson (1998) stated that "materials" is anything which is used to help teaching language to the learners. Based on the statement above materials refers to the tool like video, newspaper, workbok and textbook. The researchers would like to declare that teaching materials not only textbook but broader than it. It's a great mistake if educators teach the students based on the textbook only and never used other materials in teaching. Graves (2000) defines that materials development as a planning which is create by the teachers to achieve the

goals and objectives of the course. It means that teachers are developers of teaching materials. They are free to add, shorten, modify and lengthen the materials. However, the materials need to be evaluated based on principles. The evaluation should be based on theory of learning and theory of teaching and learning. The evaluation of materials should be based on three types of material evaluation. They are Pre-Use evaluation, Whilst-Use evaluation, and Post-Use evaluation. The first type of evaluation is often subjective, unreliable and impressionistic. It measures the potential value of materials. The second type is often objective and reliable than the first type. It measures the value of materials. The last type of evaluation is used to know what has been taught, to know the students' skills and etc. This type is used to measure the actual effect. (Tomlison, 1998) describes some criteria of good materials, such as achieve impact, help learners to feel at ease, help learners to feel confidence, relevant and useful to learners. It means that teaching materials should give the outcome or impact to the students.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Teacher-Produced Teaching Materials

In case of designing teaching materials generally for GE and particularly on ESP, the teachers are not allowed for it. Actually there are advantages and disadvantages if the GE and ESP teachers are given the opportunity as materials designer. The advantages are teachers will improve their literacy through teachers-produced materials. They will produce the materials based on context. (Howard & Major, 1995) stated that some teaching contexts will be rich in resources such as coursebooks, supplementary texts, readers, computers, audio-visual equipment and consumables such as paper, pens and so on. It's to indicate the students will get a rich knowledge and have a positive impact. The next advantage is individual need, this approach will overcome the students' heterogeneity in the classroom. The ESP teachers will get a focus in designing materials. Personalisation is the next advantage in teacher-produced materials. The ESP teachers feel free to add personal touch based on students' culture, personality and learning styles. (Howard & Major, 1995) stated that in designing teaching materials teacher need to take account of the learning styles of students is likely to increase motivation and engagement in learning. Based on some advantages above, they will avoid the idea of "one-size-fits-all"

There are three disadvantages if the teacher-produced materials. They are organisation, quality and time. Generally, in producing textbooks are organised through principle of identifiable and follow the norm. This regulation is made to avoid incoherence materials overall. Storage of materials and physical organization are the next aspect which are regulated by the organisation. The next disadvantage is about the quality. The content of teacher-

produced materials will lead to the poor of constructed, lack of clarity and lack of diction. It occurs since the teachers are lack on experience. The last disadvantages is about time. In producing materials need a passion however many teachers are not viable to allocate their time. (Howard & Major, 1995) stated that teacher-made materials, and perhaps the key factor inhibiting many teachers from producing their own teaching materials, is time.

The Effective Teaching Materials

According to (Howard & Major, 1995) There are six factors that need to account in designing teaching materials. They are learners, curriculum and the context, resorces and facilities, personal confidence and competence, copy right compliance and time. In addition to that (Graves, 2000) proposes fifteen criteria of good activities in designing materials. They are:

1. Activities should draw on what students know and be relevant to them
2. Activities should focus on students' outside of class needs, if appropriate.
3. Activities should build students' confidence
4. Activities should allow students to problem solve, discover, analyze.
5. Activities should help students develop specific skills and strategies.
6. Activities should help students develop specific language and skills they need for authentic communication.
7. Activities should integrate the four skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. In this research, the researcher just focus on two skills, they are listening and speaking skills.
8. Activities should enable students to understand how a text is constructed.
9. Activities should enable students to understand cultural context and cultural differences.
10. Activities should enable students to develop social awareness.
11. Activities should be as authentic as possible.
12. Activities should vary the roles and groupings.
13. Activities should be of various types and purposes.
14. Activities should authentic texts or realia when possible.
15. Activities should employ a variety of materials.

Moreover (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) also propose that good materials will contain interesting texts, enjoyable activities which engage the learners' thinking capacities, opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills, content which both learner and teacher can cope with. They also state that good materials should provide a clear and coherent unit structure which will guide teacher and learner through various activities in such

a way to maximize the chances of learning. Based on the statements above teacher as a designer of teaching materials need to be aware in constructing materials.

Method

This study is conducted with the qualitative descriptive and quantitative method. This way is conducted since the data in two forms. The first is in the form of score from questionnaires and experiment study. The second is a form of development from the first draft up to the third draft of teaching materials. Research development in this study applied some steps which are developing by Sugiyono (2008). Based on Sugiyono, there are ten steps in doing development research, however, the writer only used the first steps up to sixth steps, these steps are summarized into three main steps, they are 1). a preliminary study, 2) design, 3) development. The preliminary study consists of three analysis: 1) potentially analysis and problem, 2) need analysis, 3) learning analysis. While in designing steps, it consists of learning and product design. Learning design produced syllabus and lesson plan while product design produced the first draft of the textbook. The last stage in development by 1) testing materials content, media and the first draft of teaching materials from the expert, 2) revision and produced the second draft of teaching materials, 3) peers' and students' validation about the second draft of teaching materials, 4) revision and produce the third draft of teaching materials, 5) the effectiveness or experiment test. The sample of this test consists of two learning experts, five peers of teacher, seven students as validity test about the appropriate product and 30 students as a control group and 30 students as an experimental group.

The instrument of this study is a set of questionnaires. The questionnaires are distributed to the teachers and students. The range of is 1 – 4 for each question. The interval and conversion of quantitative data (questionnaire) can be seen in the following table.

Table 1.

Questionnaire Conversion

Score	Interval of the Mean Value	The Other Forms of the Interval	Category
4	≥ 3.53	$X \leq 3.53$	Very good
3	3.02- 3.52	$3.02 \leq X \leq 3.52$	Good
2	2.51- 3.01	$2.51 \leq X \leq 3.01$	Poor
1	2.00-2.50	$2.00 \leq X \leq 2.50$	Very Poor

The open and close questionnaires are distributed to the learning expert. The last is to conduct the experimental research between before and after materials development.

Results and Discussions

The result from the preliminary research shown that students need to learn more about tourism technical term (vocabulary) in the textbook. It can be seen in the following table.

Table 2

Sample of Questionnaires

No	Questionnaires	N	%
1	What activities do you want to learn vocabulary?		
	a. Grouping words	3	5
	b. Completing a blank text with available words	15	25
	c. Finding the synonym/antonym of words	42	70
	d. Identifying the parts of speech	0	0
	e. Spelling the words correctly	0	0
	f. Others....	0	0
2	What is the learning topic that you want in ESP for tourism program?		
	a. The topic related to school environment	2	3,33
	b. The topic related to tourism technical term	58	96,66
	c. The topic related to families	0	0
	d. The topic related to daily activities	0	0
	e. The topic related to nature and environment	0	0
	f. The topic related to technology	0	0

In addition, students need to practice how to book a hotel with the classmate through role play or other collaborative ways. The existence materials need to revise based on the company needed in this case is the tourism business. In designing, the researcher produced syllabus, lesson plan (based on K-2013 revision) printed of material teaching of English for tourism on grade eleven. The printed of teaching materials can be divided into two textbooks, the first textbook is for the third semester and the second book is for the fourth semester. Both textbooks are saved in the CD.

The result on development showed that 1) validation on content from experts states that content is related to correctness level and concord with teaching materials with the score is 94,81%. The uniformity on media based on the expert of teaching media get the score 98%. The experts of teaching materials stated that the score written-systematically on teaching materials is 92%.

Table 3

Validation on Content from Experts

No	Designing Materials	%
1	Contents	94,81
2	Uninformity	98
3	Materials	92

Based on the scored on some aspects above, it is to indicate that whole qualification are almost perfect but some revision should be done based on the suggestions of experts. The second draft of teaching materials is produced based suggestions of experts.

Validation test is important to do on the second draft teaching materials. This test is done by the teachers' peer and some students. Each teachers evaluated the second draft of teaching materials description which related to the appropriateness of teaching materials. After revising, the general mean based teachers and other experts are 3,57. It means that the content of materials are very good. It can be seen in the following table.

Table 4

Experts Judgment on Second Draft of Teaching Materials

No	Statements	Score				Mean	Category
		4	3	2	1		
Contents of Teaching Materials							
1	The Materials are suitable with English for tourism purpose	3	1	1	0	3.60	Very Good
2	The materials are link to relevant text in their daily life.	3	2	0	0	3.60	Very Good
3	Each units involve related units	4	1	0	0	3,80	Very Good
4	The materials lead to spoken words which relevant to social function.	2	3	0	0	3,40	Good
5	The social function of the text are related to their daily life.	3	1	1	0	3.40	Good
6	The materials have an impact to develop the ability of systematic thinking	4	1	0	0	3.80	Very Good
7	The materials develop the students' ability in communication.	3	2	0	0	3.60	Very Good
8	The vocabularies are related to the technical of tourism.	2	3	0	0	3.40	Good
General Judgment of Content						3,57	Very Good

In addition to that, students also conducted a validation test to some description of the accord and clarity on language, media, and teaching materials. The mean is 3,6. It means that the language accord and clarity in the material is very good. The description can be seen in the following table.

Table 5

Students Judgment on Second Draft of Teaching Materials

No	Statements	Score				Mean	Category
		4	3	2	1		
The accord and clarity on language, media, and teaching materials							
1	The language in ESP for tourism materials are suitable with students' cognitive development level.	3	1	1	0	3.40	Good
2	The instruction in the materials are suitable with students' cognitive development level.	4	1	0	0	3.80	Very Good
3	The language used is based on students' socio-emotion.	3	2	0	0	3.60	Very Good
4	The language in the media and materials are clear (not ambigue)	3	1	1	0	3.60	Very Good
5	The language has a high readability	4	1	0	0	3.80	Very Good
6	The language is arranged in correct grammar	3	2	0	0	3.60	Very Good
7	The language difficulty is facilitated explicitly	3	1	1	0	3.40	Good
General Judgment of Content						3,6	Very Good

Based on both result of validation, revision is conducted on the second draft and produce the third draft. The example of revision based on some experts can be seen in the following table.

Table 6.

Experts Suggestion to Revise of Unit 3

Parts of unit	Suggestion to revise
Task 1	Revising the instruction
Task 2	Revising the instruction
Task 3	Adding some dialogues and pictures
Task 4	Changing the instruction
Task 5	Revising the instruction
Task 6	Adding some dialogues and pictures
Task 7	Changing the instruction

The next stage is to conduct experimental research. The researcher chooses one competence to measure in control and experiment class. The improvement in control class is not significant however in experimental class is significant. The calculation can be seen in the following presentation.

$$\begin{aligned}
 t &= \frac{Mx - My}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{dx^2 + dy^2}{Nx + Ny - 2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{Nx} + \frac{1}{Ny}\right)}} \\
 &= \frac{9,7 - 5,4}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{484,2 + 347,2}{30 + 30 - 2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{30} + \frac{1}{30}\right)}} \\
 &= \frac{4,3}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{831,5}{58}\right) \left(\frac{2}{30}\right)}} \\
 &= \frac{4,3}{\sqrt{(14,3)(0,06)}} \\
 &= \frac{4,3}{\sqrt{0,8598}} \\
 &= \frac{4,3}{0,97} \\
 &= 4,43
 \end{aligned}$$

It is obtained that the value of t-observed is 4.43. The distribution of t-observed is used as basis of counting t-critic. In certain degree of freedom (df) the value which was obtained is 58. Based on the calculation above, the result of the research shows the mean score the experimental group (64,1) is higher than control group (45,4). The difference was tested by using t-test formula. The result of the calculation shows that t-observed value (4,43) is higher than t-table value (1,671) where Pr (probability) is 0.05 in two-tails. It can be concluded that there is a significant effect of revision materials than original. In other words, H_a is accepted while H_o is rejected.

Conclusion

The major findings on this research shown that materials which is developed by the researchers was effective. Research and development research design was used in this study based on Sugiono (2008). It involves several steps. The product as findings in this research has met the ideal criteria. Moreover, this product is able to improve the students motivation and achievement on ESP for tourism program. It is recommended to conduct further work on particular language skills based on the local wisdom. It is suggested since the belief of value

in the local area. Indonesia is rich with local value as culture reflection. It means that culture plays a capital role to design strategies of teaching and learning process.

Pedagogical Implication

As the effective learning materials (pedagogical implication) the product of this research met the criteria of effective materials. It can be seen from the students' motivation, desire, expertise and need. Generally speaking (Augusto-Navarro, 2015) stated that material design should consider and try to harmonize situated possibilities with learners' needs and wants. Nunsan (1998) in (Howard & Major, 1995) described that the materials should be contextualised to the curriculum they are intended to address. (Howard & Major, 1995) stated that Materials should also be contextualised to the experiences, realities and first languages of the learners. Teacher as designer of teaching materials should be able to link the students prior knowledge in the syllabus and lesson plan. Technical term which is related on cultural content in the program of tourism need to translated into accurate translation in the target.

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Academic Reading Engagement among EFL Teacher Candidates: A Pilot Study

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Abstract

English reading ability is a necessary skill in the tertiary level of education. Despite the fact that it is central to their studies, research has shown that not all students like reading in English. It goes without saying that English reading is an onerous task, especially among L2 learners in nonnative learning environment. To facilitate reading performance, reading engagement is regarded as the most influential component.

This paper reported a pilot study exploring the reading engagement in course materials among EFL teacher candidates, as seen from behavioral, affective, cognitive, and social dimensions. The subjects were selected because English reading is inevitable in their academic life and they had to deal with plentiful tasks of reading course-related materials

during their study. An in-depth interview was employed to investigate two EFL teacher candidates. The study revealed that the EFL teacher candidates had minimum engagement in academic reading. The results shed some light on their engagement experiences in coping with academic reading, which will be beneficial for EFL teacher education institution. The implication of the findings is discussed.

Keywords: *a pilot study, academic reading, course materials, EFL teacher candidates, reading engagement*

Introduction

Learners' success in academic life depends among others on their academic engagement. Academic engagement is important in a number of ways. It promotes students' academic performance or learning outcomes (Lee, 2014), contributes to students' subjective well-being (Pietarinen, Soini, & Pyhältö, 2014), and minimizes the emergence of negative behaviors and the risks of dropping out (Wu, Hughes, & Kwok, 2010). Academic engagement will enable students to empower themselves to spend time and put effort in their study undertakings as well as to show more persistence and resilience (Pietarinen et al., 2014; Wang & Eccles, 2011). Having the engagement, their level of spirit and energy will be boosted and so is their willingness to thrive in school, reflected in their increased behavioral engagement. Moreover, students who are cognitively and emotionally engaged will show better learning outcomes or academic achievement (Cantrell et al., 2014; Taboada, Townsend, & Boynton, 2013). However, engagement is an issue which is unfortunately often neglected because it may have been thought of to be something intuitive and teachers can learn how to take care of it along the way (Protacio & Jang, 2016).

Due to its importance, engagement is also necessary in reading. Reading is a skill which is vital to access knowledge and information in the 21st Century. The so-called engagement is regarded as the most critical component to facilitate reading success (Rahim & Hashim, 2015). Reading engagement concerns the ways readers interact with a text in a meaningful manner in terms of behaviors, affect, cognition and social aspect (Guthrie, 2004; Rahim & Hashim, 2015). Readers who possess reading engagement will be more likely to have higher reading proficiency (Cantrell et al., 2014; Taboada et al., 2013).

Musing on the importance of university students' L2 reading experiences with academic texts (Rahim & Hashim, 2015) and considering the lacunas unveiled by the synthesis of previous research findings, the current study endeavors more exploration to enrich the

existing literature on academic reading engagement. Questions still remain on engagement in reading academic materials among subjects who are not yet much researched, namely teacher candidates majoring in English. Students' voices about what they say matters to academic reading engagement need to be given more space.

Reading Engagement

Reading is a fundamental skill for academic lives and even regarded as the most essential skill in academic context (Zheng & Kang, 2014). Having good English reading proficiency is the key to academic success as well as an essential tool for professional success and personal development (Akarsu & Harputlu, 2014; Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012; Neugebauer, 2016; Shen, 2015; Sulisty, 2013). As it is a bridge to success, reading activities should be encouraged, especially reading for learning.

Despite its significance, many students do not like reading. It is shown among others by a study conducted by Applegate et al. (2014). They unveil low enthusiasm for reading among college sophomores. Regrettably, the phenomenon of unsatisfactory levels of reading motivation seems to be commonplace in all levels of education (Abrar-Ul-Hassan, 2014; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Vaknin-Nusbaum, Nevo, Brande, & Gambrell, 2018). Bektas-Cetinkaya (2012) also finds that the majority of students spend reading less than four hours a day for course or pleasure despite their acknowledgement that they enjoy reading. This amount of time is indeed very small.

In fact, to facilitate reading, reading engagement is viewed as the most influential component (Rahim & Hashim, 2015). It comprises intertwined dimensions covering behavioral, cognitive, motivational, and social dimensions to characterize an individual's actions, interactions, and strategies related to reading activities and tasks (Cantrell et al., 2014; Cantrell et al., 2017; Guthrie & Wigfield, 2000; Guthrie, Wigfield, & You, 2012; Taboada et al., 2013). The behavioral dimension of engagement is the most observable one, e.g. the amount of time an individual spends on reading. The cognitive dimension of engagement refers to the processes, strategies and efforts to achieve the goals which an individual employs to construct meaning and tackle problems while reading. The affective dimension of engagement includes the values, beliefs, attitudes that drive an individual to read and to take part in reading activities, tasks, or events (Taboada et al., 2013). This engagement is often associated with reading motivation. The last one, the social dimension, concerns an individual's involvement in literacy activities with others. It is related to the social context and it particularly deals with students' relationship with their teachers and peers.

It has been mentioned earlier that one dimension of reading engagement is often associated with reading motivation. It has to do with the internal drive which moves an individual to read. Intrinsically-motivated students have the desires to read in L2 because they find enjoyment and fulfillment from it and thus they are more engaged in L2 reading despite the challenges they encounter (Neugebauer, 2016; Vaknin-Nusbaum et al., 2018). Quite the opposite, extrinsically motivated students usually do L2 reading because of their desires to obtain something from reading, namely to outperform peers and gain recognition, to complete assignments and to receive good grades, to increase their scores on standardized tests, and to share L2 reading activities with peers in and out of class (Abrar-Ul-Hassan, 2014; Komiyama, 2013).

Students' interaction either with their peers or their teachers is a vital component to promote engagement. Research has shown that interaction with peers may help struggling readers develop their confidence and performance (Hall, 2012). Moreover, teacher-student relationship is found to be a significant predictor of reading performance (Lee, 2012), other than behavioral engagement and affective engagement, which eventually affects academic performance (Lee, 2014).

Plenty of research is available in the literature dealing with students' reading practices in English as well as their experiences in coping with academic materials. Readers who are highly anxious use reading strategies inefficiently (Roustaei, 2015). They are more distracted and easily give up, tend to avoid rigorous sentence processing, have lower comprehension and recall less content.

In addition, students' use of reading strategies while dealing with major-related materials is reported to occur from medium to high level and that they prefer to use cognitive strategy, followed by meta-cognitive strategy and support strategy (Zheng & Kang, 2014). Akarsu & Harputlu (2014) discover that when dealing with academic reading, students use various strategies according to their perceptions and needs as they perceive some reading strategies as more important than others, and this preference is affected by gender, age and academic discipline. More to the point, when students encounter difficulties in their academic reading, they develop strategies to cope with the problems (Hirano, 2015); they do not do the assigned readings before class, read selectively, enhance the reading experience, and seek out assistance from professors.

Academic Reading

In the tertiary level of education, English reading ability is a necessary skill to uptake knowledge in the 21st century (Bektas-Cetinkaya, 2012; Bhooth, Azman, & Ismail, 2014). It is one of the most important means through which the transmission of academic knowledge can be carried out (Shen, 2015). This English reading ability is vital since students are often demanded to access information in English presented in a large array of materials, such as course books, internet materials, newspapers, journal articles, and many others. Besides, higher education students are often required to read for a variety of purposes and deal with critical analysis and careful synthesis of texts of varying degrees of difficulties (Shen, 2015; Wickramaarachchi, 2017). Nonetheless, in reality, despite its being central to their studies, not all students like reading in English (Bektas-Cetinkaya, 2012; Protacio, 2017). Bektas-Cetinkaya (2012) pinpoints that students prefer reading in their native language than in English even though they realize it is crucial to promote their proficiency. They read for pleasure in their native tongue whereas they use English only to deal with course books. The phenomenon may stem from the fact which Dreyer & Nel (2003) discover that many students entering university are not prepared for the inescapable task of reading imposed on them (as cited in Shen, 2015, p. 117).

Academic reading, which is an unavoidable task in the academic context, is different from general reading for several reasons. Academic context oftentimes requires students to deal with expository texts during their course of study (Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012) and these reading materials are commonly more difficult and sophisticated because of the different vocabulary and syntax as well as the abstract language that characterizes the texts and concepts of specific disciplines (Akarsu & Harputlu, 2014; Swanson et al., 2017; Taboada et al., 2013; Tarchi, 2015). Besides, academic reading creates challenges for students because of the nature of college reading, amount of required reading, language issues, and insufficient background knowledge (Hirano, 2015). However, it often happens that reading difficulties do not stem from the reading materials (Hirano, 2015). Rather, they are more to do with the way readers approach the reading tasks at hand.

Research has demonstrated that the ability of students at the tertiary level to cope with academic reading is far from satisfactory (Bhooth et al., 2014; Chen, 2017; Hirano, 2015; Sulistyoy, 2013). Students are often still on the lowest layer, relying too much on decoding skills (Bhooth et al., 2014; Ou, 1997 as cited in Shen, 2015, p. 118); most college students are not yet ready for academic comprehension of English whereby most of their reading comprehension ranges from 'average' to 'low' (Sulistyoy, 2013). Many of the students at the

tertiary level are not prepared to face the reading demands which they should undertake. As a result, they frequently complain about the bulk of reading assignments and complicated textbooks (Shen, 2015). They encounter medium to high levels of comprehension difficulties while reading English journal articles due to limited vocabulary, low reading speed, limited semantic knowledge, lack of reading efficiency, lack of syntactic knowledge, and short attention span (Chen, 2017). They still rely too much on the usage of global reading strategies than the problem solving strategies.

This study attempts to delve into the issues of reading engagement among EFL teacher candidates. It specifically aims to describe the EFL teacher candidates' engagement in reading academic materials.

Methods

The study constitutes a pilot study that was conducted in an English teacher education institution in Indonesia. It was conducted prior to conducting a greater project that would involve more participants with more varied characteristics. The main purpose of this pilot study was among other things to explore how varied students' engagement in academic reading could be revealed using research strategies exerted in the present study. A semi-structured retrospective interview consisting of thirty (30) questions was developed by the researchers. These questions embraced all possible areas of dimensions of reading engagement that the informants might experience. There were four (4) sections in the interview; they dealt with behavioral, affective, cognitive and social dimensions of reading engagement. Prior to its administration, the interview together with its interview protocol was critically reviewed by three experts in research methods in ELT.

For the purpose, the present study involved two EFL teacher candidates representing different gender so as to avoid biased discussions. They were both senior students who were studying at the institution and they had a lot of experiences in learning content courses of their major. The plentiful experiences they had would represent practices of academic reading engagement in this particular setting. For the sake of the study, the female informant would be addressed as Diva, while the male counterpart would be addressed as Arya, who expressed their agreement to be voluntarily ready to become the data source of the present study.

In this pilot study, the researchers joined a content course class in which students were required to read a lot of reading materials. They made a careful observation on the informants particularly and the whole class in general. There were seven (7) class sessions that the researchers attended for observation purposes.

Upon class observations, the semi-structured retrospective interview was employed to gather data. The in-depth interview was aimed at eliciting their engagement experiences in dealing with reading academic materials. The interview was conducted independently to assure that the phenomenon of reading engagement in the informants could be captured individually. The interview was concluded when no more new information from the informants was identified. The informants' responses were audiotaped with their consent.

Upon data gathering, the informants' responses were transcribed verbatim. Data cleaning was conducted to assure that only relevant data would be considered for further analyses. Only relevant responses were considered as the data of the present study. Through careful reading on the transcription, then the coding process was carried out. The next phase was performing categorizing of the coded data in order to reveal important themes on the academic reading engagement of the two informants.

Results and Discussion

The following section presents and discusses the research findings with respect to the EFL teacher candidates' academic reading engagement on behavioral, affective, cognitive and social dimensions.

a. Behavioral Reading Engagement

Table 1 presents the summary of the findings in relation to the behavioral dimension of EFL teacher candidates' academic reading engagement.

Table 1 The behavioral dimension of the EFL teacher candidates' academic reading engagement

Behavioral dimension	Materialized indicators	
	Time spent on academic reading	On average 15-60 minutes/day depending on the categories of courses but not in a regular fashion: M: less time for education courses F: less time for linguistic courses
	Preferred form of reading materials	Printed
	Diligence in academic reading	No, except when there were assignments or quizzes that followed
	Attentiveness in academic reading	Short period
	Favorite place to read	Own private room
	Favorite time to read	Prior to the designated courses only if there were any post-reading tasks

Efforts made to deepen understanding of the reading materials	M: mind mapping, asking friends F: find helpful sources from the internet, highlighting and note-making, asking friends
Willingness to find and read additional sources	M: No F: Yes, when the main reading source was not thick
Action when confronted with uninteresting academic reading materials	Not reading, asking friends instead

The EFL teacher candidates in this setting spent little time on reading course materials. The finding was in line with what Bektas-Cetinkaya (2012) found. The duration varied depending on the categories of courses. This may be influenced by their subjective perceptions on the course difficulties and their personal interest. In fact, reluctance to read or reading struggle is the result of multiple factors, such as negative experiences with teachers, frustration with academic and social structures in schools, and difficult relationships at home (Sarroub & Pernicek, 2016).

They both admitted that they would read course materials, only when there was a compulsory assignment that followed.

Yang pertama kalau itu berdasarkan dorongannya, Ms, misal ada tugas yang membahas tentang itu saya kan pas pasti akan saya baca walaupun cuma skim seperti tadi tapi pasti akan saya baca. Tapi kalau tidak ada tugas, tidak ada keperluan yang mendesak, atau mempengaruhi nilai dan sebagainya tidak lakukan (Arya, Audio 6)

(The main reason was the trigger of the activity, Ms. For example, when I was given an assignment related to the topic, I would surely read the course materials although it was merely skimming. If there were no assignments or other urgent things which would influence my grade, I would not read it. Translation)

Arya oftentimes did not read course materials due to the language problems. For instance, he would avoid reading linguistic course materials because he was unable to comprehend the language in it. This situation strengthened the findings of previous research (Akarsu & Harputlu, 2014; Swanson et al., 2017; Taboada et al., 2013; Tarchi, 2015). What Arya did indicated that he was actually an anxious reader. This finding was in line with Roustaei (2015), who revealed that avoiding rigorous processing of sentences was one of the characteristics of highly anxious readers. However, Arya declared that the quizzes or other post-reading tasks had forced him to read. In a similar manner, Diva confessed that she would thoroughly and diligently do the reading approaching the designated course only when the teacher would give a quiz.

Both Arya and Diva preferred printed materials to digital ones. The reasons that Arya had were that they were more convenient for his eyes and they facilitated understanding because he could highlight them directly. Additionally, printed materials would not risk any content changes when transferred from one place to another, unlike digital materials. These reasons were supported by Diva, who thought that printed materials were more beneficial and comfortable for being given highlights and notes. She did not like separated materials since she easily lost them.

Printed. *Karena kalo digital itu lebih susah untuk dihighlight, saya pribadi saya lebih suka membaca di handout itu catatan juga di handout. Tidak suka catatan di buku lain atau di kertas lain karena sering kalinya kan hilang, jadi semisal kalo di handout itu gak tau ya kayak lebih gampang dimengerti seperti distabilo, terus ditandai tulisan apa terus kayak tambahan materi ya. Jadi lebih gampang aja di... walaupun itu membuang-buang paper (Diva, Audio 1)*

(Printed. Digital texts were difficult to highlight. I personally like reading handouts and making notes on the handout. I did not like making notes on separate book or paper because I easily lost them. To me reading handouts seemed easier to understand because I could immediately highlight or take notes. Easier..., although it wasted paper. Translation)

This finding confirmed Martin-Beltrán, Tigert, Percy, & Silverman (2017), who discover that students show more engagement when using paper books compared to online materials. However, this finding contradicted Huang, Orellana, & Capps (2016), which reveal that online reading materials are of more popular types.

In terms of attentiveness, both Diva and Arya stated that they could not maintain their attention for long period of time. The finding supported Chen (2017) about the existence of short attention span during reading among students at the tertiary level. It may be influenced by categories of courses, the atmosphere, and internal factors. For Arya, difficult language he found in course materials, especially in linguistic courses, encouraged him to stop reading. He tended to avoid processing the sentences in the text (Roustaei, 2015) because the vocabularies may be remote from his vocabulary bank (Shen, 2015). His laziness was more domineering. He could concentrate and sustain his motivation to read up to 50%, only when he could successfully comprehend the text in the initial stage. This would make him encouraged to read more. Diva, on the other hand, tended to lose concentration easily. She could maintain her attention only for the first ten minutes. Afterwards, she would no longer be able to concentrate. This was common for education courses. The atmosphere was the influential factor for her concentration. When it was conducive, she would comprehend quickly with the help of a brief

summary of the content. Otherwise, she had to repeat it several times because her concentration had been distracted by the atmosphere. In most cases, however, she said that internal factors were far more influential.

When assigned to do academic reading for a given course, both Diva and Arya would generally prepare it ahead of time on condition that there were post-reading tasks that they should do. Otherwise, they would not read it. As for the preferred place to do academic reading, they both liked doing it in their own room for various reasons. Diva liked it because it was cozy and as soon as she finished she could take a rest shortly. Meanwhile, Arya reasoned that he liked doing other things while reading, such as listening to music or playing with his mobile phone. These accompanying activities could refresh his mind and overcome his boredom. The findings demonstrated that they, as part of the Z- generation, could hardly be separated from gadgets and technology.

To enrich their understanding of the course materials they read, Arya did not try to browse other relevant sources at all. He merely read the teacher's prescribed materials. Unlike Arya, Diva was more proactive. In Roustaei's term (2015), Diva was categorized as having lower reading anxiety compared to him. She tried to find other sources or helpful summaries from the internet which were more comprehensible. However, she would not find additional references whenever the teacher's prescribed materials were a lot, or when she had gained understanding of the concepts from the original source(s).

When they encountered problems while reading a given course material, they would make some efforts to solve them. Occasionally, Arya would use mind mapping to help himself understand. Yet, more often he would take notes of his problems and he would turn to his friends to help him solve the problems. The latter was also what he always did whenever he needed to deepen his understanding of the academic materials he read. What Arya did showed less effort in solving his reading problem. Diva, conversely, was trying to solve her problems herself first. She did not easily give up as a highly anxious reader would be (Roustaei, 2015). She would find helpful sources from the internet which she thought were easier to understand compared to the prescribed course book or academic text she had to read. To help deepen her understanding of the texts, she would use highlighting and note-making, or else, if she got stuck, she would ask her friends whom she thought were more knowledgeable and had some discussion with them. Asking friends was also the action which both of them preferred doing when confronted with uninteresting course materials. They confessed that they would not read the reading materials. The finding was in line with Hirano's findings (2015). Both of them

indicated that they were not dedicated readers, who valued reading regardless of the level of interestingness of the texts (Cambria & Guthrie, 2010).

b. Affective Reading Engagement

Table 2 summarizes the affective reading engagement of the EFL teacher candidates in academic reading.

Table 2 The affective dimension of the EFL teacher candidates’ academic reading engagement

Affective dimension	Materialized indicators
	Perception on academic reading
	Uninteresting and boring
	Reactions when assigned to do academic reading
	Reluctant, unwilling
	Perception on the post-reading tasks
	M: neutral F: liking activities which did not create high tension
	Enthusiasm toward academic reading
	M: low F: moderate
	Interest in the course materials
	M: No F: Yes, occasionally
	Enjoyment while doing academic reading
	No
	Being able to see the importance and relevance of course materials to their own context
	No

Both of the EFL teacher candidates revealed that they did not like reading course materials because they perceived is as uninteresting and boring. This finding confirmed Bektas-Cetinkaya (2012) and Protacio (2017). Arya avowed that content reading was not appealing although he was aware that it was important. Content reading was scientific in nature and it was full of theories.

Bagi saya untuk mata kuliah yang bersifat konten yang pertama karena itu lebih ke scientific dan isinya pasti lebih banyak pengetahuan teori-teori atau.. bagi saya kalau untuk seperti teori-teori dan knowledge-knowledge itu saya kurang tertarik, Ms (Arya, Audio 7)

(To me, content courses are more scientific and they contained knowledge, theories, or... For me m those stuff were not interesting, Ms. Translation)

Arya argued that he was more attracted to application. Usually he would instantly jump to application and when he encountered problems in the application, he would turn to reading the theories to discover the solution to his problems. In a like manner, Diva also disliked reading course materials because it was boring. Furthermore, she had another reason. She felt that she could learn better when she listened to explanations.

Kalau jujur, enggak. Karena membosankan. Membaca materi itu kayak kalau emang enggak dibutuhin banget bosan, gitu. Jadi kalau pemahaman lebih enak langsung dijelasin secara oral. (Diva, Audio 2)

(Honestly, no, because it was boring. Reading course materials was very boring, unless it was urgent to do. For my comprehension, it was easier if it was explained orally. Translation)

This may have to do with her typicality as an auditory learner. She did the reading only because it was mandatory in her schooling and she was compelled to do so because of some unavoidable post reading tasks.

Arya and Diva had the same reactions whenever their teachers assigned them to read course materials. Reluctance was their primary response. Diva was unwilling to read when she saw the small font used in the references. Liking an auditory learning mode, she expected that the teachers would explain first and then assigned the academic reading for reinforcing the given explanation. Despite her reluctance, she did the reading in a compelled manner because of her need to succeed in the quizzes or in the compulsory post-reading tasks. In a similar vein, Arya did the reading only because of the teachers' demand and some conviction that one day the task would be fruitful for him. He wanted to have good grades, wanted to look good in front of the teachers. The motivation of both Arya and Diva was more externally-oriented; i.e. they did the reading for the sake of assignment completion and grade. This finding strengthened Abrar-Ul-Hassan (2014) and Komiyama (2013).

As for the activities around academic reading, Arya and Diva did not have shared opinions. Arya affirmed that he was neutral although he admitted that he was usually reluctant to involve himself in linguistic courses because of their stigma as being difficult. However, he understood that post reading activities were beneficial to strengthen the understanding of the reading texts. Again, he mentioned that he did the activities in anticipation that they would be useful for him one day. On the other hand, Diva had a more positive attitude. She liked activities such as group discussions whereby they could ask each other to deepen understanding. Nonetheless, many of the post reading activities usually included performance in public, and

there was some kind of intimidated feelings by other students who may search for mistakes and be judgmental. In consequence, what she expected was activities which did not create high tense on students and still made them comfortable, such as when they were allowed to choose whom they wanted to work with.

Arya and Diva also told different stories concerning the enthusiasm they had for learning the course materials. Arya mentioned earlier that he had low reading motivation. This applied not only to content reading but also for pleasure reading. He was not conditioned to read during his childhood by his parents even though both his mother and father were teachers. Diva stated a more positive stance. She claimed that her enthusiasm was very much influenced by the course and its materials. This referred to whether the content of the courses were interesting and whether the reading materials were understandable. She also added that her enthusiasm would be greater when the teachers handling the courses were supportive. The finding supported Lee (2012) in that engagement would be promoted by good teacher-student relationship. This finding unveiled that there was no internal drive underlying their enthusiasm.

Arya declared that he did not have interest in the course materials. He could not see the immediate benefits from the reading activity. He just went with the flow believing that schooling that he went through was a requirement to make him ready for a working world. His lack of interest may originate from his low reading habit, language problems and lack of passion to become a teacher. Unlike Arya, Diva sometimes still had interest in the course materials when the texts are comprehensible and relatable to her daily life context. Despite the low interest in academic reading, they both were aware that it was inescapable obligation as university students and that academic reading was the prerequisite for success. The finding showed disquieting contradiction that having awareness did not move them to do the activity wholeheartedly.

Sadly, both Diva and Arya never found enjoyment in academic reading activities. There were some reasons that underlay their feelings. Diva did it out of obligation and necessities only. She perceived academic reading as hard since the materials to read were many, complex, uninteresting, and difficult to understand. She was very well aware that she would not understand the teacher's talks in class, not be able to do the quizzes, not be able to join discussions unless she read the course materials. In contrast, Arya lacked enjoyment in academic reading because of his own laziness as the primary obstacle. These two teacher candidates exemplified what Shen (2015) found in his study that many higher education students were not prepared for the high reading demands and consequently they often complained about the reading texts as well as the amount of reading they should do.

Concerning the importance and relevance of the course materials to the EFL teacher candidates, both of them had not been able to see them clearly. Diva revealed that some courses were important and highly relevant for her as an English speaker and a future language teacher. She anticipated that she may need what she learned from the course materials for writing her thesis or future career. However, some others were not so much relevant for her as she had no idea whether she would be an EFL teacher. She said that some courses were only significant for teaching and had nothing to do with real life context. By contrast, Arya evaluated the course materials to be sufficiently important and relevant. Despite what he said, he was in fact unable to see the importance and relevance of the content courses he learnt. This was confirmed when he said that he understood relevance here to mean knowledge enrichment, not applicability. He meant to say that the course materials were relevant for his personal and professional development but they may not be applicable straightaway to a context in his future. From his statement it was clear that he was not able to see the usefulness of the courses for his own context.

c. Cognitive Reading Engagement

The cognitive dimension of EFL teacher candidates’ academic reading was summarized in Table 3.

Table 3 The cognitive dimension of the EFL teacher candidates’ academic reading engagement

Cognitive dimension	Materialized indicators
Global strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Having no purpose in mind before reading • Thinking about their prior knowledge before reading the texts • Previewing the text by paying attention to the key words • Focusing on the tables, figures and pictures to help comprehension • Scanning • Making predictions about the content of the texts • Not analyzing and evaluating the content of the texts critically • Focusing on titles and subtitles: M: No F: Yes
Problem solving strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adjusting the reading speed • Visualizing information presented in the texts to help their memory

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Guessing the meaning of the unfamiliar words: M: No F: Yes • Stopping from time to time and review what had been read: M: Yes F: No • Rereading the texts after losing concentration: M: No F: Yes
Support strategies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Taking notes • Highlighting and underlining important parts • Never reading aloud the texts when they became difficult • Translating from English into Indonesian • Never summarized the content of the texts in writing, unless told to do so • Discussing the text content with others to confirm understanding

Both of the EFL teacher candidates admitted that they did not have a purpose in mind before reading the texts. However, they thought about what they knew and connected the knowledge with the text they were reading. In this case they related the texts they read with their background knowledge. They stated that not being able to see the connection between them presented comprehension difficulties. This finding verified the importance of background knowledge to understanding content area texts (Carrell, 1985 as cited in Shen, 2015).

Furthermore, Diva and Arya generally previewed the text by paying attention to the key words. Diva paid attention to the bolded parts before she continued reading. She did not read closely parts which she thought were not essential and would do the opposite when it came to theories and comprehension of concepts. Arya usually previewed the text quickly by searching for keywords materialized in bold-typed items or italicized forms. He would focus on the surrounding environment of the keywords. This strategy would help him decide which parts should be skipped or read more thoroughly. What they did confirmed what Hirano (2015) discovered.

Arya and Diva would also observe the tables, figures and pictures in the texts to help their comprehension. For Diva, they served as summaries which simplified the content of the texts. While for Arya, they served as clues whether to read the explanation further. If they gave

him clear understanding, he would not read the texts. However, when they were not sufficiently enlightening, he would try to read the texts.

Both Diva and Arya employed scanning strategy while reading. Arya occasionally employed scanning to help him locate specific information scattering in the texts. On the contrary, Diva employed scanning as a means to review the content after she read the entire texts. They both would also make predictions about the content of the texts and confirmed whether they were right or wrong during the reading. Arya's predictions were usually related to the difficulty level of the texts and this would help him decide whether he would subsequently set aside the text or continue reading. Diva did the same thing also, but her predictions were commonly superficial because she did not intentionally prepare the predictions well. More to the point, both of them did not critically analyzed and evaluated the information presented in the texts in their attempt to gain comprehension. The latter showed that both of them did not perform higher order thinking skill while reading.

Unfortunately, Arya and Diva treated titles and sub-titles differently while they were reading a text. Arya did not view them important and hence he usually ignored the titles and subtitles and jumped immediately to the content. On the other hand, Diva would focus on the title and subtitles to help her in understanding the texts. She always read the titles and the subtitles first before reading the content.

When they encountered problems while reading academic materials, Arya and Diva would usually read slowly and carefully to make sure they understood the texts they read. Both of them would normally adjust their reading speed when the texts became more difficult. Besides, they would always visualize the information obtained from the texts to help them remember better.

One source of reading difficulties in content area texts is vocabulary problems (Shen, 2015). Diva and Arya were using different strategies in coping with the problem. Most of the time Arya would guess the meaning of unfamiliar words or phrases in the texts he read. Rarely did he consult dictionaries. He kept on reading. When the guessing did not work, he had no choice other than checking the meaning in the dictionaries. In contrast, Diva always consulted dictionaries. She never guessed the meanings of unfamiliar words or phrases because she thought guessing may be misleading and it would be better to slow down by spending more time on checking the meaning of the difficult words or phrases. This finding contradicted Roustaei (2015), who discovered that female did guessing strategies more than men.

Another source of reading difficulty in content area texts was the comprehension of the subject knowledge (Shen, 2015). To respond to this problem, Arya would sometimes stop from

time to time and reviewed what he read. The frequency was determined by the difficulty level of the texts. When the text was easy, the review would be only global. When the texts had higher difficulty level, he would cut the texts into parts and review them. Diva, conversely, usually read the texts from beginning to end and she would only review parts which she deemed necessary.

When they lost concentration during the reading process due to among others sleepiness, hunger and mobile phones, these two EFL teachers responded differently. Diva would repeat the reading from the beginning. On the contrary, Arya would not repeat reading immediately after losing concentration while reading. Instead, he would continue reading till the end. If later he realized that there was information which he missed, he would repeat it though unwillingly.

To aid comprehension while reading course materials, both of the EFL teacher candidates took notes while reading, but the notes they made were different. Arya concentrated on parts having difficult language. Thus, he would usually write word meaning. Diva, in contrast, would make brief notes about the explanation. Both of them also acknowledged that they highlighted and underlined the important parts in the texts to help their memory. Yet, they did it differently. Diva avoided black ink and preferred using colorful one. She also used colorful ink to do note-taking. To Arya, by contrast, color did not matter. He would underline and highlight with whatever writing instrument he had. What matters more to him was the markers, not the color.

Diva and Arya also employed a shared strategy in that they never read aloud a text when it became difficult. To them, reading aloud would only disturb concentration and hinder comprehension. In their attempt to better understand the text they read, both of them sometimes employed restating ideas in the texts in their own words. When it concerned new concepts, Arya would put his restatement in written form. Otherwise, he would just do it mentally. Diva usually restated parts such as definition and categorization when she had understood the parts. She would always put the restatement in written form using mixed languages. Both of them also admitted that they sometimes needed to go back and forth across texts to find relationships among the presented ideas. It happened especially when the texts they read were hard.

Both of the teacher candidates occasionally employed translation from English into Indonesian. Arya did it when the texts were difficult for him. Meanwhile, Diva claimed that she automatically translated a text into Indonesian mentally while she was reading in English. This finding was contradictory to previous research which claimed that male did translation more than women (Roustaei, 2015). They both never summarized what they had read in

writing, unless they were told to do so. On top of that, both of them employed discussion with others to confirm their understanding of the texts. Arya discussed texts which had high difficulty level with his close friends or with whom he thought was more knowledgeable. Meanwhile, Diva did not limit the discussion to difficult texts only. She did the discussion with friends in order to confirm whether she had already gained correct understanding.

The above discussion showed that the EFL teacher candidates relied on global reading strategies more than problem solving strategies, as Chen unveiled (2017). Moreover, it indicated that they did not belong to good readers yet. They did not use a wider range of reading strategies with high frequency. They did not realize that the more reading strategies they employed, the more their comprehension would be enhanced (Phan, 2006).

d. Social Reading Engagement

Table 4 presents the social reading engagement of the EFL teacher candidates in academic reading.

Table 4 The social dimension of the EFL teacher candidates’ academic reading engagement

Social dimension	Materialized indicators
	<i>Interaction with peers</i>
Form of activities	M: Summary making, discussion F: Presentation, Focus Group Discussion, group paper writing
Procedure to complete group assignments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Dividing the topic into parts and then each member was assigned to handle a particular part • Combining the parts into one whole prior to the assignment deadline
Strengths of group assignments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enhancing comprehension • Making reading activity more meaningful
Weakness of group assignments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not being able to gain comprehensive understanding because of the divided parts • Working with uncooperative partner(s)
	<i>Interaction with teachers</i>
Forms of activities	Visiting students’ groups, wrap-up, optional consultation outside class, being asked questions
Advantages	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resolving confusion • Providing further explanation
Disadvantages	Insecurity emerged when asking question to teachers in public

Arya and Diva both mentioned that, based on their experience, not all content courses they took employed group assignments as post reading tasks. Arya revealed that group assignments occurred more frequently in linguistic courses, whereby they should make summaries based on the guiding questions, which was then followed by discussion among groups about the summaries. The reading was done outside class and the class activities would be spent on doing presentations and discussions. In education courses, the group activity was discussing the given guiding questions and then it was followed by class discussion. In some classes, the teachers would give reward points for students who were active in the discussion. In the meantime, Diva had experienced various group assignments as post reading tasks, namely presentations, Focus Group Discussion, and group paper writing.

The procedure which they usually did in finishing group assignments was initially they would sit together among group members and divided the topic into parts. Each of the group members would be assigned one part to handle. The student who usually performed this task distribution was the one belonging to high-achieving group. They would combine all the work of every member after all were done. This was usually done approaching the deadline of class presentation or submission. The process of combining the work of all members was done by the high-achieving student who distributed the tasks earlier. This student was also the one who would review all the work before putting them together.

Both of the teacher candidates acknowledged that interactions with their peers in group assignments had strengths and weaknesses. They were beneficial to enhance their comprehension of the concepts and to make reading activity more meaningful. Group assignments became the platform where they could brainstorm and exchange ideas. Additionally, group assignments encouraged students to perform maximum struggle in order to perform well and not to make their own group look bad in front of others. All of these benefits demonstrated the significance of interactions with peers in promoting reading engagement (Hall, 2012). However, they unveiled that they could not reap maximum benefits from group assignments whenever there was no consolidation meeting to hold mutual sharing among members after the individual members had finished with their given task. Each member would tend to focus on their own portion and it yielded partial understanding of the whole topic. Furthermore, the situation among members may become not conducive when the peers they worked with were not cooperative.

Concerning the interaction with their teachers around academic reading, both Arya and Diva opined that it mostly happened while the teachers were visiting them in their group work, while the teacher made a wrap up at the end of the class, and optionally outside class. The

optional consultation outside class was offered especially to the groups that were in charge of presenting a given topic. Such interaction, in Arya's opinion, brought a great advantage because the students would be helped in resolving their confusion and lack of understanding which would disrupt learning enthusiasm whenever it was not tackled properly. The wrap up the teacher made at the end of the class session was used to give further elaboration on the topic discussed, to highlight what had been correct and rectify misconception and misunderstanding. It was advantageous for them in that it helped simplify the concepts and contributed to increased comprehension. This finding supported Shen (2015) in that teacher's facilitation is needed to assist students in reading academic texts.

As for asking questions to teacher, both of them claimed that they would not hesitate to do so as long as it was in a non-threatening context. Diva admitted that she was not a type of active student who liked to ask in class. She was more comfortable asking friends, or else asking the teacher in a private environment, such as when the teacher visited her group. She confessed that she felt insecure whenever she had to ask the teacher in public. Nonetheless, she would force herself to ask in public when her action was appreciated in the form of a reward point. Similarly, Arya was not hesitant to ask his teacher because the teacher positioned herself as a discussion partner. The teacher also gave incentive in the form of reward points whenever a student asked in a discussion forum. Such a strategy pushed students to read and understand the materials more to enable them to ask a question and eventually receive a reward point. Besides, together with his group, he often made use of the opportunity to consult with the teacher outside class. This finding demonstrated that good interaction between students-teachers would promote engagement, as Lee (2012) claimed.

Conclusion

The EFL teacher candidates in the pilot study displayed little engagement in academic reading. They devoted very little time to academic reading which was a mandatory task in their university study. No intrinsic drives for academic reading were present among them. They did it out of obligation and only if there was a compulsory post-reading assignment that followed. They had minimum interactions with academic texts to construct meaning using a variety of strategies. Their interactions with peers around academic reading should also be improved and managed in such a way that all members may be helped to reap maximum benefits. Finally, a good rapport between students and teachers seemed to increase students' willingness to read course materials and the accompanying post-reading tasks.

The findings of the present study imply that students' physical presence in class does not mean that they really are automatically ready to engage themselves emotionally and cognitively in the class' activities. Teachers must be aware of this phenomenon if their learning facilitation during the session is expected to be fruitful and impactful resulting in students' meaningful learning. Roots of such a phenomenon need further systematic studies. Therefore, a more in-depth study is needed to further investigate this phenomenon.

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A Corpus-Based Study: Specialized Vocabulary of English for Islamic Studies for Indonesian Islamic Students

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Abstract

Engaging specialized vocabulary in Islamic studies can be a problem for Indonesian EFL students at Islamic universities who are studying English for Islamic Studies (EIS) since they are not familiar with that study field. Hence there is a requirement for finding out Islamic terms that may cause difficulties for students when they read Islamic books or articles in English. This study is intended to discover the specialized vocabularies used in Islamic Studies texts written in English for EFL Islamic students and to classify the word class of specialized vocabulary in English for Islamic studies. For three months we compiled and analyzed a corpus of 40 texts which focused on five topics in Islamic Studies, namely The Pillars of Islam, Faith of Believe, Qur'an and Hadith, Law of Worship, and Introduction to Islam. Those readings are including ten books and 30 articles. We identified 1032 Islamic terms in the corpus. This finding is what we called the Islamic Studies Word List (ISWL). Our analysis revealed that of the 1032 words in ISWL, 817 words recognized as noun, 63 were known as adjectives, 110 identified as verbs, and 42 known as expression. Based on the result, it implied that the introduction of this word list could be a source of reference in developing material of Islamic Studies for Indonesian EFL Islamic students.

Keywords: *English Vocabulary, Islamic Studies, Corpus, Word Class*

Introduction

People are required to have good language mastery of a language that is used worldwide to learn and spread the teachings of religion throughout the world. English, as one of global language well known all over the world, may become one of language to spread the faith especially Islam. Nowadays, English is taught in Indonesia's Islamic institution. English for

Islamic studies is conducted as English for Specific purposes (ESP) as this course focuses on aspects of English related to the study of Islam, including Islamic terms. In teaching English for Islamic studies, some efforts need to be conducted in order to make students master the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), since the teacher does not only need to make them know general English but also more specific to the English for Islamic Studies which requires particular vocabularies.

This consideration (of integrating the Islamic Studies in teaching English in the course) is taken in order to face the competition in the globalization era, moreover in dedicating themselves to society; therefore, students need to have global language skills, especially that can assist them in sharing information of Islam. Hence, they need to have various vocabularies, especially Islamic terms.

Vocabulary is one of the language elements that embrace the fundamental language skills. It plays a great role for learners in acquiring and mastering a language (Cameron, 2001). Vocabulary could be a core part of language proficiency and provides a lot of the ideas for the way well learners speak, listen, read and write (Richard and Renandya, 2002: 255). Thus, students will not be able to speak or write something in English without comprehending the components they have to create.

In production, when students have a meaning or concept that they wish to express, they need to have a store of words from which they can select to express this meaning or concept. “When students travel, they don’t carry grammar books, they carry dictionaries” (Krashen, as cited in Lewis, 1993: 25). Many researchers claim that vocabulary is one of the foremost vital elements in learning a foreign language; hence the foreign-language set of courses must imitate this.

In contrast, vocabulary has been approved as L2 learners’ greatest single source of problems (Meara, 1980). This remark may possibly reflect that the open-endedness of a vocabulary system is perceived to be a cause of difficulty by learners. It also has assumed by Pierson et al. (2010) that the more advanced goal in English for Specific Purpose is the learning of key concepts and vocabulary; in this case, specialized vocabulary is required. Also, in providing the vocabulary for ESP students, it is important to consider the learner's needs. It means giving them the words they need. In recent years, there are many ESP research of need analysis in various fields such as in nursing, tourism, nautical, theology. But the research of ESP in relation to Islamic Studies is still rare, particularly in Indonesia.

The purpose of this study is to find out the specialized vocabulary to learn in English for Islamic Studies and to classify the word class of vocabulary in English for Islamic Studies.

Therefore, it is hoped that the result of this research can help the students in learning English vocabulary, especially Islamic terms. Also, the outputs can help the lecturers in designing the topics and the vocabulary suitable for the student's needs.

Literature Review

English for Specific Purposes

English as a Foreign Language has been divided into two branches by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), namely English for General Purposes (EGP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). ESP is now well established as an essential and distinct part of English Teaching (Cheng, Sin, & Li, 2008). Since English has attained the prestige of lingua franca in nearly any field of research, the teaching of ESP has generally been seen as a separate activity within English language teaching, and ESP research as an identifiable component of applied linguistic research (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Under the ESP context, there are two major sub-fields, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), which are distinguished by their research nature and pedagogical tradition (Robinson, 1991; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). EAP concerning students' needs to learn academic language constitutes the majority of ESP, whereas EOP comprises of professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situations (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

English for Islamic Studies

English for Islamic Studies (EIS) means that learning Islam religion and culture using the English language. The focus of EIS is on how to use English in Islamic studies not to learn the Islamic concept. Nevertheless, it will enable the students to learn English and at the same time develop their knowledge about Islam (Asnur et al., 2019). It deals with topics that are more academic. However, this course does not only focus on academic nature. It also can share in another part such as helping students to learn common Islamic terms, understand the English translation of Holy Qur'an, and read the Islamic journal articles. The English for Islamic Studies must cover the four skills; listening, speaking, reading, and writing. It also emphasizes the elements of English such as vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar. In addition, the main focus of the EIS is on English language skills related to reading, while the long-term goal is the application of these skills to learn Islamic concepts and vocabulary.

Specialized vocabulary

Specialized vocabularies are those vocabularies utilized in certain areas. The words that are specifically recognized for topics, fields, or disciplines (Nation, 2001: 198). Obtaining a particular lexicon is vital for learners to comprehend scholastic education and to accomplished up share of their preferred academic discourse communities. Studies on specialized vocabulary have facilitated to define exactly what defines whether a word is specialized and how much-specialized vocabulary is found in textbooks.

In order to identify the specialized vocabulary, Coxhead (2013) has recommended some techniques, namely: consultation with specialists in a certain field and working with specialized dictionaries, developing rating scales, and employing techniques from corpus linguistics.

Corpus-based studies

A corpus is a body of texts of written or spoken language. Corpus Linguistics is the study of language using a sample language that comes naturally. Corpus studies have given a contribution to the students to identify and understand more about specialized vocabulary (Asnur, Akil, Atmowardoyo, & Halim, 2019). Corpus-based studies allow for larger-scale investigation of the word in context. They should be relatively easy to replicate. The benefit of a corpus-based approach is that it allows for more reliable and empirical linguistic investigations, and can provide more generalizable and valid research results (Biber, 2012). They have been particularly useful for developing word lists to be used in language classrooms and for independent study.

There have been various approaches to create a word list. Without the assistance of computers, several researchers began to develop the word list in the 1970s. There are four landmark studies provided the foundation for work in this area (Newman, 2016;6), those are Campion and Elly in 1971, followed by Praninskas in 1972 created the academic word list based on reasonably small corpora, in which the words were calculated manually (by hand). Furthermore, Lynn (1973) and Ghadessy in 1979 constructed the contents of their academic word list on notes made in textbooks by students, indicating words that they were not familiar with.

In this research, the researcher applied the corpus-based study in identifying the vocabulary in English for Islamic Studies. The researcher conducts the corpus study by selecting various reading text related to the topic after that all vocabularies identified were consulted to the expert and working with specialized dictionaries.

Methodology

In order to meet the purpose of this study, the corpus-based study is considered as the appropriate method to be applied. In conducting this research, the researcher applied the corpus method by Coxhead (2000). Corpus-based study or usually called corpus linguistics is a methodology to obtain and analyze the language data either quantitatively or qualitatively (McEnery and Wilson, 2001). The source of corpus data involved 10 books and 30 articles. Interview with the 3 English lecturers who teach English for Islamic Studies in one of Indonesian Islamic institutions and 3 experts of Islamic Studies were also conducted to validate the specialized vocabulary.

Results and Discussions

There were five priority topics that become the focus on this research, namely The Pillars of Islam, Faith of Believe, Qur'an and Hadith, Law of Worship, and Introduction to Islam. From those 5 topics, to compile the in-house corpora, the design methodology followed the suggestions of Coxhead (2000) and Biber et al. (1998) for specialized corpus design.

As Coxhead (2000) stated, collecting various short texts increases the representativeness of the corpus and decreases the preference. The researchers were compiling vocabulary from corpus texts of 10 books and 30 articles related to the topics. The researcher selected the texts both from printed and downloaded books and articles. Based on the corpus, it was found 1032 Islamic terms. The following table 1. briefly showing the result of the research question number 1, those are specialized vocabularies used in Islamic Studies texts for EFL Islamic Students:

Table 1. Vocabulary in the Corpus

Topics	Word Class				Number of words	Percentage
	Noun	Verb	Adjective	Expression		
Pillars of Islam	144	37	18	15	214	21%
Faith of Believe	275	30	17	20	342	33%
Qur'an and Hadith	181	17	10	3	211	20%

Law of Worship	118	17	11	4	150	15%
Introduction to Islam	99	9	7	0	115	11%

The vocabulary found is used for English for Islamic Studies; therefore, it was identified as suggested by Coxhead (2013). He stated that there are several ways to identify the vocabulary for ESP, those are consultation with experts in a particular field and working with specialized dictionaries, developing rating scales, and using techniques from corpus linguistics. In this research, the researcher chose to consult with experts in a particular field, working with specialized dictionaries, and conducting corpus linguistics. On the initial point, the researcher did the corpus linguistics by compiling readings related to the subtopics. This is also in line with the method of Crawford (2007), who divides the words into semantic division, whereas in this research the researcher divided the words based on subtopics of Islamic Studies. After the researcher identified the specialized vocabularies for each subtopic, it is then verified by doing a consultation with the lecturers in Islamic Studies field as experts in order to design the specialized vocabulary need to learn for English for Islamic Studies. Thus, it was conducted with Lecturer 1 and 2. In addition, the researcher matched the Islamic studies vocabularies by seeing the technical dictionaries and translation of The Noble Qur'an by Yusuf Ali as suggested by the expert.

The techniques that the researcher conducted are quite challenging since there were two experts who have different ideas about the terms. Where the first expert believes that terms used in English for Islamic Studies are mostly needed to follow the initial Arabic terms; meanwhile, the second expert also agrees with the first expert, but he mostly likes to translate several terms in English. If it has not any comparison translation in English, consequently, it must use its former terms in Arabic.

The techniques used by the researcher above have been suggested by Schmitt (2010), where he lists numerous difficulties with this technique, including the fact that it is likely several experts on the same topic might well produce quite different lists, depending on variables such as their level of knowledge of the subject, the systematically of their approach to developing list, and how difficult it is to identify technical words. In addition, he suggests that technical dictionaries can be used to help identify specialized vocabularies. Nevertheless, technical dictionaries that existed are only available on Arabic-English.

Hence, after the researcher did the corpus linguistics by selecting special words from the English readings, then it were verified by consulting to the expert and then matched the term in dictionary, but since one of the dictionaries is available only in Arabic-English, so the researcher need to found out the translation in Indonesia first and then the translation in Arabic, then search the words in dictionary for the English terms whether it is match or not. However, if the researcher did not find the words in both dictionaries, for the limited words presented in the dictionaries, the researcher explored the words in the Qur'an translation by Yusuf Ali. By using these techniques, the researchers discover more precise special words; as proposed by Chung and Nation (2004) that even it is difficult, but this kind of technique was around 80 percent accurate in identifying technical vocabulary.

Answering the question about the class of word in English for Islamic studies, the researcher also considered the words into categories, as stated by Fraser (2005), who distinguished specialized vocabulary into four categories. It can be seen in the following table:

Table 2. The Classification of the word in English for Islamic Studies

Category	Number of Words	Percentage
Fully Technical Words	328	32%
Crypto Technical	570	55%
Lay Technical Words	134	13%
Academic Words	0	0

The first category is fully technical words, where it is the words with meaning specific to the particular field and not likely to be known in general language. In this research it is found that vocabulary used in Category 1 are taken mostly from certain language, namely Arabic, English, Kurdish, French, and Latin; the second is crypto technical that consist of polysemous words, with a meaning closely related to the specific field and, is also used in general language but maybe vague to a non-specialist; the third is lay technical words, where the meaning of the words minimally related to the particular field and can be understood by someone without specialist knowledge in the field; and the last is academic categories where it is a discourse-structuring word and words with analytic and an evaluative role where the meaning has no particular relationship to the specific field. In this research, the researcher skips the fourth category, since the researcher only focuses on the specialized categories.

The result of this research implies that the vocabulary used for English for Specific Purposes is commonly taken from a particular language; in this case, English vocabulary for Islamic studies mostly took the words from Arabic. Those Islamic terms in English have been acquired either directly from Arabic or have taken the scenic route from Arabic into other languages (through Spanish, Italian, and/or French, or through Turkish, Persian, or Urdu, and even through Hebrew or Latin) and then into English. Most entered one or more of the Romance languages, before entering English. Lately, with Islamic religion is becoming more popular, more Arabic words and terms are being used in the English language. It can be determined that English absorbs or borrows much Arabic for Islamic terms; this is because there are no proper words in English that can describe or even approach the true meaning of the Islamic term.

Conclusion

This study focuses on five core topics in English for Islamic Studies, namely Faith of Believes, Pillars of Islam, Law of Worship, Introduction to Islam, and The Qur'an & Hadith. Based on those topics, the vocabularies of specific terms were compiled through corpus analysis. It is identified 1032 words, which can be divided into a major part of speech, namely noun, verb, adjective, and exclamation or expression. By this division, it is revealed that of the 1032 words found, most of the words are part of the noun. The rest of the words are verbs and adjectives. Only a few of the words are included in exclamation/expression. Therefore, it can be implied that the introduction of this word list can be a source of reference in developing material of Islamic Studies for Indonesian EFL Islamic students

Moreover, in the classification of vocabulary based on Fraser (2005), it shows that the vocabularies are classified in fully technical words, and generally originates from Arabic. It does not only work on the English language but other languages as well. Since Allah SWT sent down the Koran in Arabic, Allah SWT also lowered Islam first to the Arabian Peninsula. So it is not surprising, in many ways, terms in Islam are more commonly used in Arabic since they hardly can find the approximate words for the terms; thus, they better used or borrow the Arabic terms as the original language. In the case of translating Islamic terms into English where many of these English words lead people to inaccurately believing the concept, so it is best to leave them as Arabic terms and understand the words in their true light.

Pedagogical Implications

In this part, the researchers presented pedagogical implication of the research as the reflection done by the researchers on the research findings during the research as follows:

1. The Importance of understanding specialized vocabulary

Reading is useful as the main or secondary source for information, specifically information for certain fields. Nevertheless, readers who obtain specific vocabulary in their reading through their second language get fewer words and depth of lexical knowledge; moreover they also have an incomplete understanding of certain words. Therefore, understanding specialized vocabulary is a must for readers, especially to them who learn English for specific purposes. Specialized vocabulary strictly associate to particular subject knowledge, field of study which arises in specialist domains only with specialized terms. For example, to build conversations about economics we need to know the proper terms of the context to employ them in our dialogues. If we are interested in reading such articles about art, all we need is to be familiar with the vocabulary of the area.

In this study, vocabulary of English for Islamic Studies is important to be understood by Islamic students in order to make them easier in comprehending Islamic English reading text or to use the words in their communication about Islam, or further to assist them in producing English written or spoken that integrated to their field of study program. Understanding the specialized vocabularies of English for Islamic Studies in contexts helps students comprehend what the main message of the text is, and it helps specialists to transmit the content more effectively. Not only those mentions before, but this specific vocabulary also supports readers comprehend the interface between the elements of specialized texts and the complete context which is often a subconscious mechanism of knowledge acquisition. It also develops interests in the formation of new words and terms.

2. The Importance of the Word list in studying English for Specific Purposes

This study has found the specialized vocabulary of English for Islamic Studies, where all the vocabularies divided into five topics arranged into word list. The word list is a requirement for people, students and all experts involved in the representation, expression, communication, and teaching of specialized knowledge. No domain that does not have specific entities to denominate their ideas. The word list itself is specifically practical in assisting teachers of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to teach their students skill of language. By that word list, the students may learn specific terms in particular fields of study, and then they

will have no difficulties in finding the meaning of technical words in reading text or in listening comprehension. They also may apply those certain words in the list for writing or speaking context. The word list may display in the form of glossary, flashcard, and any other form. By such method and strategy in teaching, teachers may utilize the glossary or flashcard to develop students' vocabulary, to teach them writing or speaking skills, and even to enhance their reading and listening comprehension. This word list is also useful for students in translating text, whether in Indonesian-English vice versa. Therefore, they will not face any difficulties in transmitting the L1 (first language) into L2 (second language).

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**Some Difficulties in Verbalizing English Words and Phrases:
A Case Study of Suspected Dyslexic Children**

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Abstract

This study observed a number of reading difficulties faced by suspected dyslexic learners in verbalizing words and phrases in English. The acquisition of English words and phrases for foreign language learners is one problem for young learners in English subject. In the preliminary study, the authors have observed a number of learners experiencing some difficulties in verbalizing words and phrases. The purpose of this study are; 1) to trace whether learners' difficulties are caused by internal or external factors, 2) to find out words and phrases that are difficult to

verbalize, and 3) to find out an effective teaching strategy for learners who experience such conditions. This study is a descriptive qualitative study and the data were collected by direct observation (giving repeated treatments) to children with dyslexia during the class of Basic English learning activities. The results show that 1) the difficulty of suspected dyslexic learners can be caused by both internal factors, i.e. mother tongue and teaching method, and external factors, i.e. sociolinguistic factor, English as a foreign language and school learning environment; 2) The difficulty of reading the basic words found in mostly nouns, while the difficulty of reading formations consists mostly of verb words; and 3) The Calistung method appears to be a basic method for teaching children to know about letters. In addition, the linguistic problem of Dyslexic Children can be improved by therapy through several experiments.

Keywords: *learning difficulties, Verbalizing Words, Phrases, Suspect Dyslexia*

Introduction

Dyslexia is a condition of processing input information that is different from normal children which is often characterized by difficulties in reading and writing, so it can affect areas of cognition such as memory, input processing speed, ability to regulate the time, aspects of coordination and control of motion (Shaywitz, 2008: 453). All over the world, children with reading difficulties are vulnerable to a host of emotional bullying from people around them who label them as either “dumb” or “lazy” (Glyn, 2015)

Dyslexia is a form of learning difficulties experienced by a person in reading activities caused by some nerves in the brain not working optimally. Here are some of the notions of dyslexia summarised from several sources: According to Benasich and Thomas, dyslexia is a difficulty experienced by a person in deciphering, reading, and understanding the text so that he experiences great suffering in a society that is very prioritizing reading fluency (Stendberg, 2006: 323).

Dyslexia is a type of mental illness in children, also known as learning disorders. This condition makes it difficult for children to read, write, spell, or speak clearly. Their ability to think maybe above average; they can think quickly and creatively with strong reasoning abilities. Unfortunately, they will still experience difficulties in the process of understanding lessons in terms of visual or sound.

A dyslexic child experiences a failure to learn to read due to certain neurological functions (neural arrangements and relationships), or the nerve center to read does not function as expected. According to Bryan & Bryan in Partowisastro (1986: 50), dyslexia is a form of difficulty in learning the components of words and sentences, which historically show language development that is slow and almost always problematic in writing and spelling and the difficulty in studying representational systems for example with regard to time, direction, and time (Imandala, 2009). Thus it can be concluded that dyslexia is a child who suffers from impaired vision and hearing associated with written words or symbols due to certain neurological functions (neural arrangements) or the center for reading does not function as expected.

In general, there are three main obstacles for learners (suspected dyslexic) in learning Basic English; 1) they naturally experience limited method in verbalizing words and phrases, and 2) English has a word system that is not in their mother tongue, and 3) the teacher has not found the appropriate method to overcome this problem.

The children with this expressive language disorder cannot use the words in the sentences since they often have fewer vocabulary than common learners. However, their ability to understand the words are similar to the common learners since they may have the same level of intelligence. Hence, though they cannot use the words in sentences, they are still able to comprehend the meaning of the words.

This study observed a number of reading difficulties faced by learners suspect dyslexia in verbalizing words and phrases in English. The acquisition of English words and phrases for foreign language learners is one problem for young learners in English subject. In the preliminary study, we have observed a number of learners experiencing some difficulties in verbalizing words and phrases

Scope of Study

This study observed a number of reading difficulties faced by learners suspect dyslexia in verbalizing words and phrases in English

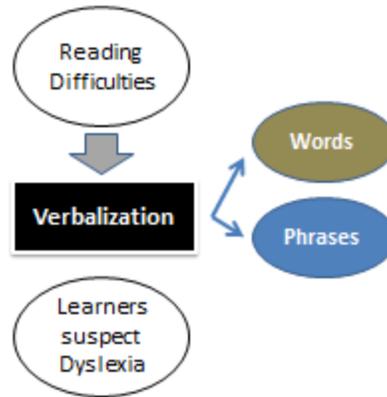


Figure 1. Scope of the Study

This study focuses only on Verbalizing English Words and Phrases for the Children of Suspect Dyslexia. He does not discuss other language disorders, for example aphasia.

Method

This study describes the difficulty of reading basic words and formed words in English by explaining the shape and extent of reading difficulties experienced by suspected dyslexic children aged 7-12 years in Special School Education in Makassar. The method used is a descriptive qualitative method. Data collection is done by observing or direct observation (giving repeated treatments) to children with dyslexia during the class of Basic English learning activities.

The data collection was done through a linguistic test on a number of learners. The tests had been validated by Neurology Department Faculty of Medicine, Hasanuddin University, Indonesia. The linguistic test is a set of words or phrases that must be made of mistakes. The greater the level of mistakes, the greater the perceived dyslexia experienced by a person. This research was conducted for one year, 2018.

Population and Sample

The population of this study was a number of children suspect dyslexia in several special education schools in Makassar

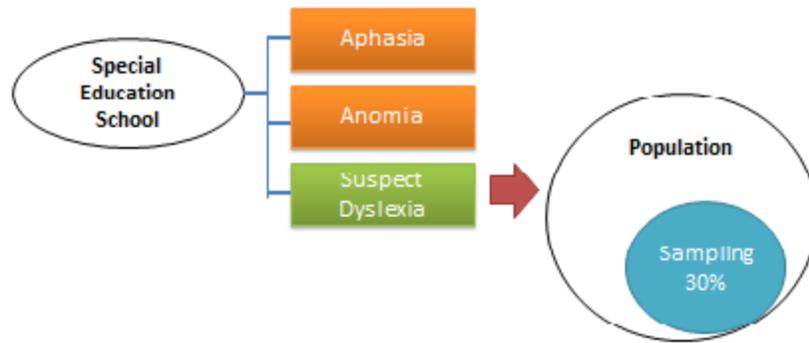


Figure 2. Population and Sample

Clinical and linguistic test were employed in several schools. It has been ascertained that there were 40 suspected dyslexic children based on clinical test. Linguistic test was carried out to measure the level of difficulty dealing with children obstacles in verbalizing words and phrases. Through linguistic test, 12 out of 40 suspected dyslexic children (30%) were selected as samples which consisted of 7 females and 5 males.

Objectives of the Study

The purpose of this study is formulated as follows; 1) to trace whether learners' difficulties are caused by internal or external factors, 2) to find out words and phrases that have difficulty in verbalizing, and 3) to find out an effective teaching strategies for learners who experience such conditions.

Verbalizing English Words and Phrases

This study observed a number of reading difficulties faced by learners suspect dyslexia in verbalizing words and phrases in English. The acquisition of English words and phrases for foreign language learners is one problem for young learners in English subject. In the preliminary study, we have observed a number of learners experiencing some difficulties in verbalizing words and phrases This research uses a linguistic test designed to test the level of failure and difficulty of students. The words used in the test were the common words found in the learners' daily activities and the words that had learned by learners. Difficulties in verbalizing words are as follows;

**Table 1 Linguistic Test Designed To Test the Level Of
Failure and Difficulty**

No	Words	*Nonsense words	Percentage
1	Chair	chair *chira *cihar *chtir	3 (25%) 5 (41.7%) 3 (25%) 1 (8.3%)
2	Speak	speak *speka *spaek *sbaek	4 (33.3%) 5 (41.7%) 1 (8.3%) 2 (16.7%)
3	write	write *wirte *wrtte *writie	2 (16.7%) 3 (25%) 2 (16.7%) 5 (41.7%)
4	Home	home *hoem *hoom *homc	5 (41.7%) 3 (25%) 2 (16.7%) 2 (16.7%)
5	Drink	drink *dnink *drirk *dnirk	4 (33.3%) 4 (33.3%) 2 (16.7%) 2 (16.7%)
6	Sorry	sorry *sarru *sarry *somy	3 (25%) 4 (33.3%) 3 (25%) 2 (16.7%)
7	Gold	gold *glod *golo *gloo	4 (33.3%) 3 (25%) 2 (16.7%) 3 (25%)

8	Happy	happy	3 (25%)
		*hapyy	3 (25%)
		*hepy	4 (33.3%)
		*heppy	2 (16.7%)
9	Like	like	4 (33.3%)
		*ilke	6 (50%)
		*ilek	1 (8.3%)
		*lika	1 (8.3%)

The types of errors as above as seen in the table are found by means of: 1) shows one word or phrase and then the respondent is asked to verbalize the word, 2) after verbalizing the word or phrase, they are asked to repeat the word on a piece of paper, and 3) all respondent's answers are tabulated in the table.

The following are presented a number of words from one syllable to more than four syllables tested to the child suspect dyslexia, and then each child suspected dyslexia is asked to repeat and copy the words again.

Table 2. English Words in one syllable

No	Word	Length	Consonants	Vowels	Number of respondents verbalizing right (N 12)
1	Me	2	1	1	9 (75%)
2	But	3	2	1	8 (66.7%)
3	Your	4	2	2	7 (58.3%)
4	Chalk	5	4	1	7 (58.3%)

Table 3. English Words in two syllables

No	Word	Length	Consonants	Vowels	Number of respondents verbalizing right (N 12)
1	about	5	2	3	4 (33.3%)
2	twelve	6	4	2	4 (33.3%)
3	perfect	7	5	2	2 (16.7%)

4	thursday	8	5	3	2 (16.7%)
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Table 4. English Words in three syllables

No	Word	Length	Consonants	Vowels	Number of respondents verbalizing right (N 12)
1	family	6	4	2	4 (33.3%)
2	seventy	7	5	2	3 (25%)
3	assonant	8	5	3	3 (25%)
4	happiness	9	6	3	2 (16.7%)

Table 5. English Words in four syllables

No	Word	Length	Consonants	Vowels	Number of respondents verbalizing right (N 12)
1	January	7	4	3	5 (41.7%)
2	Virginia	8	4	4	2 (16.7%)
3	Beautiful	9	4	5	2 (16.7%)
4	Everything	10	7	3	3 (25%)

Table 6. English Words in more than four syllables

No	Word	Length	Consonants	Vowels	Number of respondents verbalizing right (N 12)
1	Personality	11	7	4	4 (33.3%)
2	Discrimination	14	8	6	2 (16.7%)
3	Abiogenesis	11	5	6	3 (25%)
4	Capitalization	14	7	7	3 (25%)

The percentage of numbers of respondents verbalizing right (N 12) as metered in some tables about is obtained through the recording system via the 'repeat the word you hear' method. In this way, it is known that dyslexia sufferers have serious difficulties repeating the words he listens to.

The following assessment is related to the phrase. It seems that errors verbalizing phrases are much more difficult than words. It is revealed in the table below

Table 7 Verbalizing after listening to the Phrase

No	Phrase	Verbalizing after listening to the Phrase	Number of respondents' correct answer (N 12)
1	Noun Phrases:	The sports car	4 (33.3%)
2	Verb Phrases	enjoy a massage	6 (50%)
3	Gerund Phrases:	Getting a promotion	5 (41.7%)
4	Infinitive Phrases:	To make lemonade	2 (16.7%)
5	Appositive Phrases	My favorite pastime	2 (16.7%)
6	Participial Phrases	grinning from ear to ear	4 (33.3%)
7	Prepositional Phrase	on the table	7 (58.3%)
8	Absolute Phrase	his tail between his legs	1 (8.3%)

One of the dyslexic children difficulties is word-finding correctly. The 'Word-finding difficulty' is a common and challenging problem in neurological practice. In many cases, dyslexic children will complain of word-finding difficulty or, not uncommonly, the difficulty is identified by the neurologist in the course of the assessment. In both situations, the basis for the word-finding problem needs to be established but this is often not straightforward (Rohrer, 2007).

Learners' Suspected Dyslexia

Dyslexia is a form of learning difficulties experienced by a person in reading activities caused by some nerves in the brain not working optimally. Children with dyslexia experience an inability to distinguish and separate sounds from spoken words. In addition, children with dyslexia have difficulty in games that say similar sounds.

Here are some characteristics of children with dyslexia (Fanu, 2007: 60): 1) Reading is very slow and seems unsure of what he is saying. 2) Using her/his finger to follow her/his eyes that are moving from one text to the next. 3) Skip several syllables, phrases or even lines in the text, 4) Add words or phrases that are not in the text that is read, 5) Flip through letters or syllables by entering letters another, 6) Incorrectly reciting words with other words, even if the word that is

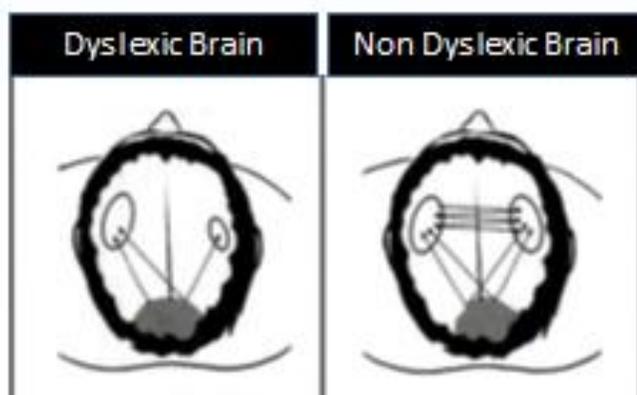
changed does not have an important meaning in the text being read, 7) Make your own words that have no meaning, nonsense words, and 8) Ignoring punctuation marks.

The forms of difficulties in reading dyslexic children are as follows (Subini, 2011): 1) Doing additions in syllables, for example, *bath* becomes *bathe*, 2) Removing letters in syllables (omission), for example cooking becomes a period, 3) Reverse letters, words, or numbers with inversion/mirroring, for example, dice become babu, 4) Reverse the form of letters, words, or numbers with upside down (reversal) for example *pop* becomes *bob*, and 5) Replacing letters or numbers (substitution) for example *affect* becomes *effect*, number 8 becomes 3.

Findings and Discussion

Findings

Until now neurological experts have not been able to know the function of the human brain as a whole, only a few parts that can be identified with certain functions and have links with each other. When humans carry out language processing activities, the activity in the left part of the hemisfera will appear greater than the right hemisphere, whereas, in people who experience dyslexia, the hemisfera activity of both parts becomes equally large (Devaraj, 2006: 35). The dyslexic brain can be seen in the following figure.

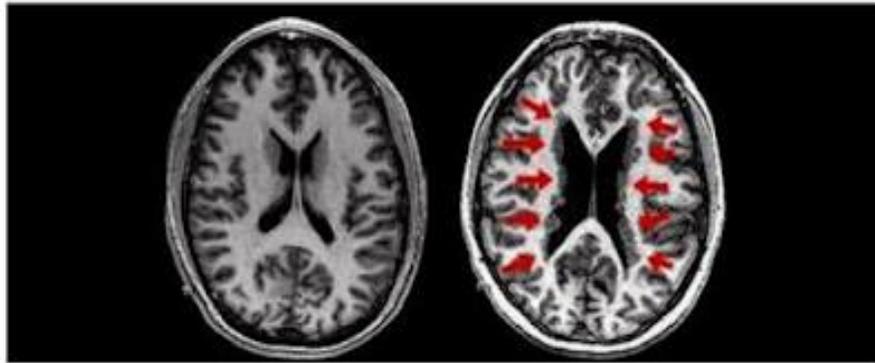


(Source: Riadi, Muchlisin. 2016)

Figure 3. Dislexic and Non-disclexic Brain

Comparison of nerve signals between the normal brain and the brain of dyslexic patients can be seen in figure 3 above. This shows that dyslexia is closely related to neuro problems, causing language disorders. In fact, one of the causes of the dyslexic child in performing language processing is due to the concentration of connecting nerve travel or confusing jam of nerve signal

traffic making the process of informing the nerves longer (Devaraj, 2006: 36). The following is the result of FMRI (Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging) scanning of dyslexic children when processing reading activities.



(Source: Riadi, Muchlisin. 2016)

**Figure 4. Scanning reflection of FMRI
(Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging)**

The figure above shows the Comparison of Upper Corpus Collusum between a normal brain and a dyslexic brain. Etiologically, dyslexia is believed by experts that dyslexic disorders are caused more by heredity 23-64% of parents with dyslexia tend to be the cause of someone with dyslexia which is inherited through the chromosomes (Shaywitz, 2008: 458). These findings become one of the significant implications of the signs of reading difficulties in dyslexic children who can be traced from parents or relatives who also experience dyslexic disorders.

Discussion

The difficulty of reading the basic words found is mostly nouns, while the difficulty of reading formations consists mostly of verb words. Difficulty reading each dyslexic child has a different form (see Table 1) so that it is difficult to determine the category. The majority of difficulties occur in sorting letters correctly. One phoneme is replaced by another phoneme, both the vowel phoneme and the consonant phoneme. Reading by changing more than one phoneme in one word also occurs.

Another reading difficulty found in children suspects dyslexia is reading by removing or adding phonemes both vowel phonemes and consonant phonemes, exchanging phoneme locations with other phonemes, repeating syllables in front of them, and reading as they please. The errors can be seen in table 2 to table 6. Especially regarding the verbalization of several types of phrases,

the number of respondents' correct answer (N 12), their percentage can be seen in Table 7 verbalizing after listening to the phrase.

Some types that are often used to describe dyslexia are a) *Phonological* dyslexia. It is a difficulty in spelling out or spelling a word into an arrangement of letters. People with this type of dyslexia find it difficult to write words that are heard. This type is also known as dysphonetic dyslexia or auditory dyslexia, b) *Surface* dyslexia. It is a condition characterized by an inability to recognize the word for word so words are difficult to remember and learn. This learning disorder is also called visual dyslexia or *dyseidectic* dyslexia. The visual dyslexia is a condition characterized by difficulty in interpreting the word seen, c) Rapid naming deficit dyslexia is a condition characterized by an inability to mention numbers and letters seen, and d) Double deficit dyslexia. It is a condition characterized by the inability to separate sounds to mention letters and numbers. The four types of dyslexia were found evenly in this study.

Conclusion

The learners difficulties are caused by internal or external factors. The internal factor, which is the most common factor, is genetic. This condition is usually inherited from family members. Conditions characterized by cerebral dysfunction, namely the part of the brain that regulates thinking and moving activities, while the external factor, among others, are injuries or other bad conditions. In addition to heredity, the cause of dyslexia is a disorder experienced by children after they are born such as brain injury, stroke, or other trauma.

Words and phrases that have difficulty in verbalizing are respectively *phonological dyslexia* and *rapid naming deficit dyslexia*. Both of these types are more related to verbalizing words, while for phrases it is quite more to be inclined to *double deficit dyslexia* and *surface dyslexia*.

Associated with the effective teaching strategies for the learners in such conditions, learning through the Calistung method appears to be a basic method for teaching children to know about letters. This method is generally done with a capital letter. In this way besides being a method as well as a therapy

Through several experiments, the linguistic problem of Dyslexia Children can be improved through therapy. Dyslexia cannot be cured but can be minimized by linguistic therapy. A sufferer will continue to be exposed along with age. However, with proper care and support, dyslexic

children can still work and become successful people as adults as other children. The implication of this study is that teachers and parents of the suspected dyslexic children have ways to reduce children's difficulties in verbalizing words and phrases especially in English.

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Communication Strategies and Readiness of Coaches in the Prevention of Sports Injuries from Psychological and Physical Related Antecedents

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Abstract

The study analyzed the readiness of male and female tertiary coaches of Zamboanga City in terms of mechanisms in sports injury prevention. Likewise, their use of varied communication strategies was also assessed when dealing with the regulation of athletes' emotion as a means to prevent sports injuries induced by psychological antecedents. The coach's legal responsibilities in ensuring athletes' safety against all forms of injury were also analyzed.

Relevant data were obtained using researcher-developed instruments, albeit theory-informed from reviewed studies and literature. Among the types of data analyzed include the demographic profile of the coaches, their accounts of sports injury preventive measures along (1) Periodization, (2) Nutrition, and (3) First Aid. The coaches' self-reports on the use of communication strategies were also obtained. Data analysis employed descriptive statistics, phenomenology, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-test.

A total of 56 coaches were taken as research participants, majority of whom are male (62.9%), aged between 30 to 50 years above, and coaching basketball and volleyball. Most have engaged in coaching for at most 5 years. Likewise, majority of the participants finished Bachelor in Physical Education.

As to the findings, the coaches were generally found ready when it comes to sports injuries prevention for their athletes, as computed from the overall means of their ratings under three indicators namely, (a) periodization, (b) nutrition, and (c) first aid. Findings also reveal the coaches' broad use of four (4) communication strategies in regulating the emotions of their athletes aimed to prevent sports injuries with psychological antecedents, although their use of each strategy varied in extent. The strategy: "Situation Selection and Situation Modification" registers with a

“very high” extent of use compared to the rest of the other strategies that registered only a “high” extent of use. “Cognitive Change” is the least used communication strategy by the coaches. The use of “Situation Selection and Situation Modification” as a communication strategy significantly differentiates male and female coaches, with the female coaches using this strategy more frequently than the male coaches. Across gender, the other communication strategies are used in fairly similar rates. Coaches are also significantly differentiated as to their readiness to sports injuries prevention on the basis of certain demographic variables such as age, sex, educational background and type of athletes coached. The phenomenology of self-reports from both male and female coaches revealed their perceived problems and challenges during training, coping strategies on sports injuries prevention, and strategies in educating athletes about injury prevention.

On the merits of its findings and conclusions, the study recommends strategic plans to be adopted by athletes, coaches, and the Higher Education Institutions (HEI’s). The researcher also recommends furtherance of study along this area and to intensify research along sports injuries induced by psychological antecedents, as well as male and female coaches’ use of various communication strategies in regulating the emotion of athletes.

Introduction

Currently, the language of sports has already captivated the hearts and minds of people from all walks of life. However, with the usual concerns on physical activity and proper nutrition, the concept of friendly competitions becomes riddled by issues that surround its “dark side”. In this case, it is sports injuries that paint the ugly face of the craft.

Sports injury, in its non-specific form, refers to the kind of injury that most commonly happen within the practice of sports or exercises. While some sport injuries result from accidents, others occur due to poor training practices, inappropriate equipment, lack of conditioning, or insufficient warm-up and stretching protocol. Thus, the art of coaching comes in with a multitude of responsibilities beyond mere order, prediction or control of athletes. Coaches must be equipped with the knowledge and practical expertise in managing and preventing sports injuries regardless of its antecedents (Bompa, 1999).

Coaches should also possess essential knowledge on the basic training as they design an optimal program. Fine-tuning as they find their training program to be ineffective enables them to manipulate or change the training parameters. They should also see to it that the safety of the

athletes is paramount. The most common causes behind sports injuries generally come from unintentional accidents, using bad form during an exercise, performing an inadequate warm-up prior to exercise, or partaking in a sport which is beyond their ability. The areas of the body most commonly affected include joints, ligaments, and tendons. Hence, the common injuries include sprains and strains, tendon injuries, fractures and dislocations.

Likewise, the nutrition spectrum of any training program is just as important as the physical component. However, athletes at all levels of training often fail to follow through with it (Laliberte et.al. 1997). This should also be taken into consideration as sports and movement experts follow the concept of enough energy to be burned for purposeful movement. Nutrient timing also plays an important role during training and should be practiced by coaches wishing to optimize training results and promote recovery. Specifically, carbohydrates and protein need to be consumed immediately after exercise. Understanding nutrition is a start towards reaching optimal performance. Multiple factors can influence overall performance. However, starting with the basics such as nutrition, can lead to greater improvements in performance regardless of the training program. Utilizing an ideal training program while implementing a proper nutritional program will enable athletes to realize optimal enhancements in performance.

Adjacent to the list of potential physical antecedents to sports injuries are the psychological factors. In the most recent Consensus Statement, following the 2006 edition, published by an expert panel comprised of six different American sports medicine organization (Herring et al, n.d.), it was mentioned that "... team physicians must address [both] the physical and psychological issues related to athletic activities [which] may result in physical injuries ... Psychological factors, especially stress, are an important antecedent to injuries. They play an important role in injury rehabilitation, and contribute to successful return-to-play ... [moreover], injuries produce a variety of psychological reactions. These psychological antecedents to sports injuries are addressed through effective communication strategies employed by coaches in the training the athletes in stress and emotional management that serve as vital aspects of their performance. This is similarly emphasized by other organizations that convey tips in the prevention of sports injuries, such as Johns Hopkins Medicine (2019). In the latter's proposed strategic scheme, two of the 10 major tips essentially link to psychological antecedents, which are then correspondingly managed through the use of effective communication strategies between the coach and the athlete. Such tips, for instance, that invoke the psychological domain of sports injury prevention are: (a) talking the

athlete to enable him / her to understand experiences of pain; and (b) assist athletes in recognizing injuries to prevent further complications (Johns Hopkins Medicine, 2019).

In the psychological domain, the training of athletes necessitates that they are also equipped to manage emotional stress and psychological challenges. Psychological factors (i.e., stressful life events) may contribute to the risk of athletic injuries above and beyond physical and environmental factors (Herring, n.d.). Personality factors (e.g., introversion/extroversion, self esteem, perfectionism) and other psychological factors (e.g., a supportive social network, coping resources, high achievement motivation) may be factors that reliably predict athletic injury risk. There has been a consistently demonstrated relationship between one psychological factor – stress – and athletic injury risk. Stress may be defined as the demands of a situation exceeding the resources to respond to those demands. Athletes who experience high levels of stress, whether on or off the field, are at greater risk of being injured. Certain subpopulations of athletes, such as those experiencing high life stress and low personal coping skills, may be at an even greater risk of sustaining athletic injury. Stress causes attentional changes (e.g., narrowing of attention, general distraction, increased self-consciousness) that interfere with an athlete's performance. Stress has been shown to cause increased muscle tension and coordination difficulties which increase the athlete's risk of injury. Teaching athletes stress management techniques has been shown to reduce injury rates over a season of participation (Herring, n.d.).

Research shows that developing good communication between coaches and players results in better, more effective teams (Arkansas State University, 2018). Generally, communication involves people interacting with one another to convey information. The most obvious form of communication is linguistic (expressing oneself verbally or in writing), but body language, behavioral mannerisms and many other interpersonal signals are also forms of communication. Both verbal and nonverbal communication play a significant role to people who are likely to have interest in using language in conveying beyond the meaning (Medriano and De Vera, 2019). When thinking about communication in sports, the available methods can seem very specific. As far as interpersonal verbal communication goes, clear and constructive communication between players and coaches and others involved with a team parallels positive communication just like in any other organization. Many studies have shown the benefits of good communication in competitive athletics. Players who know how to effectively interact with each other will work together better, forming a stronger overall team. However, learning to communicate one's thoughts and feelings

clearly and effectively can take time. Fostering this knowledge in players is primarily the responsibility of the team's coach (Arkansas State University, 2018).

Workshops in effective communication are a part of many successful athletic programs, and coaches who communicate openly with their athletes can model effective interaction by speaking directly, listening attentively and valuing athletes' opinions and psychological sentiments. Positive communication in sports can also benefit from common practices like pre-game meetings, when the team and coaching staff can come together to give feedback, discuss strategies and set goals for the day (Arkansas State University, 2018).

Emotions can have a large influence on athlete performance. A talented, hardworking athlete may perform very well or very poorly, depending on whether they are experiencing frustration, anxiety, happiness, or excitement before and during competition (Tamminen and Braun, 2013). One of the main areas of research within the Sport and Performance Psychology is to explore how athletes regulate their emotions and deal with stress in sport (Tamminen and Braun, 2013). The interest is to understand how individuals interact and help one another regulate their emotions and deal with stress. Only recently, research is starting to learn more about the ways that coaches influence their athletes' emotions and performance. While coaches have a number of responsibilities, it is clear that the ways in which coaches interact and respond to their athletes may affect the athlete's emotions and their confidence to perform well in competition, and altogether in preventing various types of sports injuries. This directs us to the realm of communication strategies in regulating athletes' emotions. Through effective communication, there are a variety of strategies and approaches that coaches might use to try and increase the positive emotions or decrease the negative emotions of their athletes (Tamminen and Braun, 2013).

A model for classifying emotion regulation as a communication strategy was developed by James Gross (in Tamminen and Braun, 2013) and it has increasingly been used to explore athletes' emotion regulation in sport. While there are no 'one-size-fits-all' communication strategy for all situations, there are common ways that coaches may help their athletes to regulate their emotions. The taxonomy of communication strategies based on Gross' model reveals that these are fundamentally rhetoric strategies of communication aimed towards various rhetoric goals that result to shaping an athlete's psychological and mental framework in sports. The communication strategies are as follows:

Situation selection and situation modification (SS-SM). This communication strategy for the emotional regulation of athletes consist of designing, choosing, or modifying a situation/event with the purpose of changing the emotions that your athlete may experience. For example, you have an athlete consistently failing with a task in workout and is experiencing frustration as a result. As a coach, you may select to scratch some of the more difficult drills at the end of a training session to avoid creating feelings of anger or sadness among your athletes. You may also modify the task to have the athlete experience success in order to ease frustration and elicit more positive emotions (Gross, in Tamminen and Braun, 2013).

Attention deployment (AD). This communication strategy for the emotional regulation of athletes refers to efforts to direct your athlete's attention toward or away from a stressful situation, to change the emotions they are experiencing. For example, an athlete is anxious prior to competition. You begin chatting with the athlete about his/her personal life (e.g., school, family, work, etc.) to distract the athlete from the competition and reduce feelings of anxiety. Some coaches may use games or puzzles for their athletes to complete in order to distract them from the upcoming competition (Gross, in Tamminen and Braun, 2013).

Cognitive change (CC). This communication strategy for the emotional regulation of athletes involves changing an athlete's interpretation of a situation/event in order to change the emotions arising from that situation. For example, an athlete is disappointed and frustrated with his/her training progress prior to competition. As a coach you may help the athlete think differently about it by putting things into perspective (e.g., telling the athlete that this single performance does not define him/her as an athlete) and/or rationalizing the athlete's progress (e.g., we are in the middle of hard training); by changing the way the athlete thinks about the situation, you can help to reduce their disappointment and help them prepare for the upcoming competition (Gross, in Tamminen and Braun, 2013).

Response modulation (RM). This communication strategy for the emotional regulation of athletes consists of strategies to increase or decrease an athlete's emotional response to a situation/event. For example, an athlete is happy following a fantastic performance. You congratulate, high five, and/or hug the athlete to elicit even more happiness and excitement.

While different emotion regulation strategies will work for different athletes in different situations, it is important for coaches and athletes to maintain open and active communication to understand what works best for both the coach and the athlete. Although the research is still

ongoing, we are learning that coaches do have an influence on the types of emotions that athletes experience in training and in competition.

On the aforementioned merits and context, this study was conceptualized to analyze the coaches' readiness towards sports injury prevention, which also adjacently involves their use of communication strategies when dealing with athletes' concerns in counseling and training sessions.

Methodology

The is a descriptive study that employed both quantitative and qualitative modes of data analyses. A questionnaire checklist was used to survey frequencies of occurrence and the views of 56 male and female coaches from Higher Education Institutions of Zamboanga City in terms of their readiness towards sports injuries prevention. The questionnaire checklist was researcher-developed, albeit theory-informed based a careful digest of relevant literature and studies. The instrument is of three (3) parts. The first part consists of personal data where respondent's demographic profile was asked. The second part covers (1) Periodization, (2) Nutrition, and (3) First Aid having 15 statements each variable with a 5-point scale of 1-Never, 2-Rarely, 3-Sometimes, 4-Often, and 5-Always. And the third part comprises 5 questions on the challenges faced by the coaches. In addition, qualitative analysis was undertaken using the phenomenological method in which respondents' perspectives were processed into descriptive categories to identify the list of challenges and problems faced by the coaches along concerns of sports injury prevention.

A Perceptual Questionnaire on the Use of Communication Strategies to Athletes was used to determine the extent that coaches employ the 4 Communication Strategies of Gross (in Tamminen and Braun, 2013). Based on theory, these communication strategies commonly pursue the general goal of regulating the emotion of athletes. However, the 20 qualifying statements comprising the questionnaire was specially designed to assess how each emotion-regulating communication strategy is used for the prevention of sports injuries due to psychological antecedents. The 20 items of the questionnaire are equally distributed into the four communication strategies, with 5 qualifying statements assigned to indicate each communication strategy. The respondent coaches responded to this questionnaire by rating the qualifying statements using a 5-point scale, to wit: 1-Never, 2-Rarely, 3-Sometimes, 4-Often, and 5-Always.

The specific research objectives requiring statistical computations employed SPSS Package version 2.5, using a 0.05 threshold of significance for all inferential data analyses. The specific modes of data analyses employed in the study include, (a) Descriptive Statistics (Frequency, percentage, and rank); (b) One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA); and (c) t-test.

Results of Data Analyses

The following are the findings of the study, clustered under each research objective, and in the order of the statement of research problem.

Demographic profile of the coaches and extent of coaching experience

The age of the coaches ranged from brackets between 30-49 (middle-aged) and 50 above (oldest). Notably, the largest percentage are those aged between 30-49 (33.5%). Balance in gender distribution was attempted in the assignment of the participants of the study, although with the higher leverage of the male coach population constituting a majority fraction (62.9%). Likewise, the coaches vary in their educational background. Three different academic programs were noted namely, (a) Bachelor in Physical Education, (b) Bachelor in Secondary Education major in Physical Education Health and Music (PEHM), and (c) Other academic programs (unspecified). Majority of the coaches (84.5%) graduated Bachelor in Physical Education while the rest graduated from Bachelor in Secondary Education (PEHM) and other academic programs.

The participant coaches represent coaching expertise along 15 varied types of sporting events, though with apparently higher percentages in the fields of basketball (12.5%) and volleyball (15.9%). The coaches also varied in terms of the length of their engagement in the coaching practice that range from 1 year (minimum) to 25 years and above (maximum). Majority (68.9%) have been engaged in coaching practice between 1 to 5 years. Likewise, the coaches have managed athletes who have competed in various levels of competitions like the Mindanao Association of State Tertiary Schools, Inc. (MASTS) and Philippine Association of State Universities and Colleges (PASUC).

Readiness of coaches on sports injuries prevention along “periodization, nutrition, and first aid”

For the following discussions, reference data are indicated in Table 1.

Table 1. Summary of the coaches’ readiness to sports injuries prevention

VARIABLES	OVER-ALL MEAN	DESCRIPTIVE RATING
PERIODIZATION	4.20	High Level
NUTRITION	4.02	High Level
FIRST AID	4.29	High Level
TOTAL	4.17	High Level

Periodization

Overall, the readiness of the coaches is High (AWM: 4.20) when it comes to mechanisms of sports injuries prevention along the aspect of “periodization”. Among the highlights of their readiness in terms of periodization are the following:

- *Give complete rest after a high intensity or high volume days as not to injure (AWM: 4.43, Very High);*
- *Start the training slow and progress according to athletes own capabilities (AWM: 4.34, Very High);*
- *Incorporate structured warm-up and cool-down in the training program (AWM: 4.46, Very High);*
- *Teach athletes only the rules, correct sport skills and strategies that I am qualified to administer (AWM: 4.35, Very High);*
- *Do not allow athletes to practice difficult or potentially dangerous skills and to use sport equipment without proper supervision (AWM: 4.42, Very High)*

Nutrition

Overall, the readiness of the coaches is High (AWM: 4.02) when it comes to mechanisms of sports injuries prevention along the aspect of “nutrition”. Notably, however, this finding fares relatively lower than the coaches’ general readiness along the aspect of “periodization”. Among the highlights of their readiness in terms of nutrition are the following:

- *Advice the athletes to sleep with a minimum of 8 hours a night to repair and recover the body from the activity (AWM: 4.56, Very High);*
- *Do not allow athletes to drink cola, iced tea or any other drinks that contain caffeine, carbonation or high sugar content (AWM: 4.44, Very High);*

First Aid

Overall, the readiness of the coaches is High (AWM: 4.29) when it comes to mechanisms of sports injuries prevention along the aspect of “first aid”. Notably, this finding fares relatively higher than the coaches’ general awareness along the aspects of “periodization” and “nutrition”. Thus, it was observed that their awareness along “first aid” is highly characteristic of their readiness for sports injuries prevention. Among the highlights of their readiness in terms of first aid are the following:

- *Make sure that athletes are in proper condition before starting the training (AWM: 4.71, Very High);*
- *Immediately respond to emergency care or give treatment to an injured athlete (AWM: 4.64, Very High);*
- *Make sure that athlete’s medical records are kept to monitor health conditions (AWM: 4.32, Very High);*
- *Seek medical consent to parents or legal guardians allowing me to give medical treatment (AWM: 4.50, Very High);*
- *Keep a record of phone numbers for emergency medical services (AWM: 4.39, Very High);*
- *Remove injured athletes (i.e. inability to walk, run, jump, throw, etc. without restriction) from the activity (AWM: 4.60, Very High);*
- *Prevent improper or unsupervised use of facilities (AWM: 4.40, Very High)*

Extent of use of communication strategies used by coaches in regulating athletes' emotions for the prevention of sports injuries with psychological antecedents

For the following discussions, reference data are indicated in Table 2.

Table 2. Summary of the coaches' extent of using communication strategies for the prevention of sports injuries due to psychological antecedents

VARIABLES	OVER-ALL MEAN	DESCRIPTIVE RATING
Strategy 1: Situation selection and situation modification	4.31	Very High Level
Strategy 2: Attention deployment	4.26	High Level
Strategy 3: Cognitive change	4.10	High Level
Strategy 4: Response modulation	4.22	High Level

Overall, the coaches resorted to the use of all the 4 communication strategies to regulate their athletes' emotion, particularly aimed at preventing their susceptibility to sports injuries with psychological antecedents. However, the differences in the average weighted mean (AWM) of the ratings obtained under each cluster of communication strategy reveals that use of some strategies seems to be more or less preferred than the others. Viewed from an alternative explanation, the differences in the ratings across the different strategies may also indicate the magnitude of use of particular strategies depending on the frequency of certain situations encountered that call for the application of certain strategies more than the other strategies, or it may also indicate what strategies the coaches deem appropriate depending on the personality or personal needs of their athletes. Albeit, regardless of these possible explanations, "Strategy 1: Situation selection and situation modification (SS-SM)" with the highest average weighted mean (4.31: Very High)

appears to have advantage over the other strategies when it comes to actual utilization by the coaches.

As to the import of the above advice when it comes to sports injury prevention, it is notable that certain training situations may arouse unfavorable emotional issues for certain athletes, so that the appropriate communication strategy is to ease the athletes emotional tension by exposing him / her initially to situations where he / she can perform effectively (as calculated by the coach) so that the athlete will not have an initial encounter of discouragement from emotionally traumatizing tasks. The main thrust of SS-SM strategy is self-confidence-building and motivation.

Obtaining relatively lesser ratings are the three other communication strategies, particularly that of “Strategy 3: Cognitive Change” with the least average weighted mean (4.10: High). Nevertheless, the rest of the three communication strategies still rated “High” in terms of extent of use by the coaches. In contrast to SS-SM strategy, “Cognitive Change” (CC) does not entail the coach’s initiative to alter the situation but simply to persuade the athlete to consider a different interpretation of an emotionally disturbing situation in an attempt to reconfigure the athlete’s attitude towards that situation to turn it into something positive. Thus, the aim is to eliminate in the athlete’s mindset his / her association of a certain sports situation to an emotional trauma or its association to feelings of depression hoping that this will adjacently prevent sports injuries from happening as a result from the athlete’s repeated encounters of the same situation. While this study found a relatively “high” extent of resort to this strategy by coaches, it does not appear to be as much patronized as the other strategies. Probably this can be associated to some difficulties in executing this communication strategy as it may be far too challenging in reality to reconfigure an athlete’s hard-driven perspectives, especially if sports injuries are consistently experienced in the same situations. Most athletes resort to avoiding the situation that they calculate will result to the potential injury rather than taking the risk of thinking that it will result positively in the next encounter. Athletes tend to retain in mind what risks are likely to lead to injurious outcomes.

Difference in male and female coaches’ use of communication strategies in preventing sports injuries due to psychological antecedents

Based on the results of the Independent Samples T-test used to differentiate the male and female coaches’ use of communication strategies aimed to prevent the sports injuries of athletes

due to psychological antecedents, the corresponding to the t- value of 2.342 and the p-value of 0.021 for the variable SS-SM strategy indicate that the sex of the coaches significantly differentiate their use of communication strategies. Going back to the reference data subjected to this statistical computation, there is vivid evidence that female coaches patronize the SS-SM strategy at significantly higher rates compared to male coaches, although the latter also use the same strategy more often than any other strategy but not as much as the female coaches do. As to the rest of the communication strategies, male and female coaches appear to use them in fairly equal extent.

The aforementioned finding finds its context in the report of Janssen (2018), who differentiated male and female athletes when it comes to “coachability”:

“On the whole, females tend to be more coachable ... Compared to male athletes, females tend to be more open to ... new ways of doing things. They are willing to try new techniques, especially if it will help them perform better. Females tend to give their coaches much more initial respect, rather than reserving judgment or making their coaches prove they are credible ... women are much more willing to give you their hearts and best effort.

Male athletes tend to be more convinced (and sometimes deluded) of their own prowess, and are therefore often less coachable. They may feel like they know everything there is to know about the sport and will dismiss the coach if they do not think he/she is credible. They force coaches to prove that they know more than them ... many males seek to prove the coach wrong.’ (Janssen, 2018)

Construed from the essence of the above disparity between male and female attitudes towards sports and coaching, it would seem very palpable indeed to expect from female coaches to use SS-SM strategy more intensely than male coaches. This strategy entails a generous amount of “empathy” dispensed by a coach to an athlete, so that a coach can be willing to adjust his / her intended training program for an athlete for the sake of accommodating the athlete’s emotional needs. This empathy drives a coach to carefully sensitize his / her selection and modification of sports situations to suit the specific needs of the athlete, which then again; presupposes that that the coach is more personally engaged with the athlete to care to know what his / her emotional needs are. Gross (in Tamminen and Braun, 2013) theorized that SS-SM as a communicative

strategy has its merits in regulating the emotions of athletes (and adjacently to alleviate the probability of sports injuries with psychological antecedents) thereby indicating that the use of this strategy has beneficial effects to coaching, although not necessarily implying that it results to better performance of coached athletes. It may be that the relatively “more tolerant” practice of female coaches is one factor that makes women unpopular in the coaching enterprise that male coaches disdain.

Differences in the readiness of coaches for sports injuries prevention based on their demographic profile and coaching experience

1. Age and readiness for sports injury prevention

On the results of the One-Way ANOVA used to statistically differentiate the coaches’ readiness for sports injury prevention along the variable “age”, the findings revealed a significant difference across these variables along the aspect of “periodization”, as indicated by an F-value of 3.669, and a p-value of 0.026. Findings further indicate that coaches belonging to middle-aged brackets are likely to have more significantly adept readiness.

The above finding parallels the statistical results under the aspect of “first aid”, with the F-value (2.687) and p-value (0.025) passing within the threshold of significance set by this study at the alpha value of 0.05. Hence, this also indicates that there is a significant difference in the coaches’ readiness in terms of first aid to sports injuries prevention when they are categorized according to age. Findings further indicate that the coaches in the older age brackets are significantly more adept in their readiness.

The aforementioned findings seem to concur with the observation held by Drake & Hebert (2002), as they characterized the aggressiveness of middle-aged coaches which may have debilitating effects on their performance. Accordingly, first year coaches face several difficulties in terms of handling crises, being calm under fire, being perceptive to the needs of players, winning the confidence of players, and getting players believe in themselves. They may also be expected to quickly institute changes, establish and enforce a discipline code, and improve the team’s win/loss record. The process of implementing these changes can be overwhelming and requires patience and sensitivity on the part of the new coach (Drake & Hebert, 2002).

2. Sex and readiness for sports injury prevention

On the results of the Independent Samples T-test performed, a significant difference between the sexes was gleaned in terms of their readiness for sports injury prevention along the aspect of “periodization”. This is indicated by a t- value of 2.342, with a p-value of 0.021. Analysis further suggests that the male coaches are significantly more ready than female coaches when it comes to “periodization”.

3. Educational background and readiness for sports injury prevention

On the results of the One –Way ANOVA performed, a significant difference was noted in the coaches’ readiness on the basis of their educational background, as indicated by the computed statistical values (F-value= 9.577; p-value = 0.000). This is similarly observed in coaches’ awareness along “nutrition” (F-value = 6.061; p-value = 0.003).

Further analysis revealed that the coaches who graduated from academic programs that directly specializes in Physical Education have significantly more adept readiness for sports injury prevention along ‘periodization’ and “nutrition”, compared to those who are not Physical Education majors. These findings seem palpable considering that the latter coaches are likely to face challenges in coming up with a training program because they lack previous academic preparation on designing training programs for athletes. On the other hand, coaches who are graduates of Bachelor in Physical Education are significantly more ready in responding to emergency care or give treatment to an injured athlete.

4. Sporting event and readiness for sports injury prevention

The results of the One-Way ANOVA performed for this statistical inference revealed that the coaches’ readiness for the prevention of sports injuries are randomly similar regardless of the sporting event attended by the athletes that they coach.

5. Length of coaching experience and readiness for sports injury prevention

The results of the One-Way ANOVA performed for this statistical inference revealed no significant difference among coaches’ readiness for the prevention of sports injuries based on length of coaching experience.

6. Level of competition and readiness for sports injury prevention

The results of the One-Way ANOVA performed for this statistical inference revealed that coaches' level of preparedness for the prevention of sports injuries is significantly differentiated by the level of competition in which their athletes are engaged. However, this goes true only in the aspect of "periodization" as indicated by the statistical values (F-value= 4.292; p-value = 0.007).

Further analysis shows that coaches who competed in Philippines Association of State Universities and Colleges (PASUC) are significantly more ready in terms of "periodization" than those who coached for Mindanao Association of State Tertiary Schools, Inc. (MASTS) level. This can be potentially explained due to the rigorous preparation of the athletes for the higher level of competition (i.e. International Level). In terms of nutrition, coaches who brought athletes to compete in the international level are more conscious in instilling proper diet to their athletes.

Challenges faced by the coaches in preparing for sport injury prevention

On the aggregate of varied responses obtained from the coaches, descriptive categories were identified to synthesize responses that are essentially parallel in sense and meaning. The descriptive categories were further analyzed to enable their classification. As a result of this phenomenological analysis, the challenges faced by the coaches in terms of their readiness for sports injury prevention appear to register under two general categories namely, (a) Problems encountered during training, and (b) Problems along their coping strategies for sports injuries prevention; and (c) Problems faced when implementing strategies in educating athletes about injury prevention.

In addition to the phenomenology of the coaches' challenges, a separate phenomenological analysis of their responses was conducted to reveal their perceived strengths and weaknesses. On this account, the coaches perceived their strength along the following points:

- Giving adequate and clear instructions to athletes;
- Adequate background on first aid execution;
- Ability to motivate athletes to focus;
- Patience and understanding in accommodating athletes' sentiments and needs

Conversely, the following are the perceived weaknesses of the coaches:

- Unfamiliar types of injuries encountered;
- Mishandling behavioral problems of athletes;

- Inadequate supply of necessary equipment for injury prevention and treatment;
- Lack of time to focus on coaching duties;

Recommendations

On the merits of the findings and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations are advanced for the benefit of different stakeholders in the athletic enterprise:

Athletes. The athletes need to have knowledge and skills in responding to sports injuries. They must know the basics on responding to injuries so that they themselves will not suffer much in case they meet an accident in the field. Athletes must learn to deal efficiently with stress and other emotional struggles related to their sports engagement as this will also help prevent their encounter of sports injuries that are due to psychological antecedents. Moreover, athletes should be more transparent and open for communication with their coaches when it comes to their psychological challenges, especially if these have bearing on their athletic performance.

Coaches. The coaches may enhance their knowledge on training program, giving first aid, and information on sports nutrition through internet, seminars, and trainings. They need also to secure certification on emergency medical procedures or athletic injury care before accepting the responsibility to coach. Both male and female coaches must strengthen their awareness of sports injuries induced by psychological antecedents and not just the more familiar physical challenges of their athletes. In this context, coaches should master the use of all communication strategies as they adapt to the different needs and situations of athletes who need to be regulated of their emotions as way to prevent their encounter of sports injuries that are due to psychological antecedents. Both male and female coaches should learn to appreciate the benefits of using all the communication strategies.

Higher Education Institutions. The Commission on Higher Education (CHED) should consider providing more adequate Workshops and Training on First Aid, Nutrition, and Periodization to all identified tertiary coaches in Zamboanga City before the Mindanao Association of State Tertiary Schools, Inc. (MASTS) games and Philippine Association of State Universities and Colleges (PASUC) games in order to equip them and prepare them in responding to emerging difficulties that may occur in the field. Relevant trainings must also be allocated to educate coaches on sports injuries induced by psychological antecedents, and the communication strategies that coaches can use to help prevent these types of injuries.

Researchers / Scholars. A follow-up study can be developed to strengthen, counter, or illuminate new information relative to findings that have emerged from this study. This study also promotes furtherance of research on sports injuries induced by psychological antecedents, as well as male and female coaches' use of various communication strategies in regulating the emotion of athletes. Other researchers are encouraged to conduct a similar study using other variables.

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Communication Barriers Among Children in Difficult Situations

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Abstract

This situational analysis covered the cities of Caloocan, Tacloban, and Zamboanga, Philippines. Target groups were the children who experienced man-made induced emergency situations such as armed conflicts, and natural disasters like earthquakes and typhoons. These also include children who have experienced violence and discrimination at home or in the community, those who have been separated from their families, and those who have left home to live in the streets; focusing about the needs and concerns of the sector and the gaps in the policy and programs in the areas of prevention and response to identified needs and concerns.

A desk review of existing literature or materials about the sector was undertaken prior to collection of data from primary sources such as the boys and girls on the move through focus group discussions, key informant interviews, observations and other forms of data collection procedures. Through the latter activities, the findings drawn from the desk review were verified and updated. The purpose of focus group discussion was to generate responses from the target sector about the topics at hand. A group of ten to fifteen (10-15) members was formed composed of boys and girls in difficult situations which was led by a facilitator/moderator (interviewer) in a loosely structured discussion of the five main questions: a. What are the needs and concerns of children (girls and boys) in difficult situations? (gender influences); b. What are the circumstances of their movement from place of origin, in transit, and to their destination? c. What are the current programs, services, and mechanisms at various stages of their movement to respond to their concerns? d. What are the current gaps in the overall policy and response to the needs and concerns of children in difficult situations? e. What are the communication barriers faced by children in difficult situations?

To substantiate and verify the findings of the desk review and focus group discussion; and to collect additional data to fill the gaps drawn; the key informant interview with people in the community particularly on the situations of children on the move was conducted for purpose of collecting information from the community leaders, professionals, or residents—who have firsthand knowledge about the issue. These community experts, with their particular knowledge and understanding, have provided insights on the nature of problems and have given recommendations for solutions.

As described by children in difficult situations in Caloocan, the journey was arduous, at times nauseating. They experienced insomnia in fear of what could happen to them along the way. Some seek refuge with their relatives, some moved out to live near their parents', and some look for urban vacant spaces where they erect shanty houses out of scraps in search for transient jobs nearby. Typhoon Yolanda brought many children homeless, lost families and hope which caused them trauma. The devastation was severe, bills were unimportant which resulted to loots and scavenging. looting period however periled children.

Adolescent girls always had difficulties in moving places to places which were accompanied by series of situations they have to deal with; carrying their heavy baggage, looking after their younger siblings, and no food to eat are just some of it. Following the devastating event of Yolanda, displaced children wandered around the city; traumatized, barefooted, cold, famished, and wounded, looking for their families and food. Children were also complaining about their transient refuges. The temperature and humidity are a problem, causing a lot of illnesses such as colds and fever to escalate.

The Department of Social Welfare and Development has identified programs for the children and youth which address the children in difficult situations. Children who are displaced during the Zamboanga Siege were given relief goods by various organizations – both government and non-government, some even hosted health awareness programs and health missions such as immunization and counseling.

Despite the various programs addressing these displaced children's welfare, communication draws a line between the organizations that program children's welfare and the children themselves. Being displaced, undocumented, and the lack of the ability to express their needs, children in difficult situations do not receive the benefits of the programs created for them. Some enjoy the benefits the organizations give them but do they really wanted or needed it. Most

of the organizations simply provide what are necessities like food and shelter which has drawbacks especially to children who need more than just that said needs.

There are many reasons why interpersonal communication may fail between the child and the humanitarian. Barriers may lead to messages becoming distorted and therefore wasting both time and money causing confusion and misunderstanding. As humanitarian attending children in difficult situations, they should know what are the barriers that may hinder the purpose of helping them. Counsel and education may help the children to express their thoughts about their needs and wants.

Keywords: *children, communication barriers, difficult situations, programs, refuge, displaced*

Introduction

Target groups of the study were children; male and female, ages between ten to seventeen years old that experienced man-made induced emergency situations such as armed conflicts, and natural disasters. Target groups also include children who have experienced violence or discrimination in the home or in the community, those who have been separated from their families, and those who have left home to live in the streets; excluding, however, children whose families or parents will not allow them to participate, or the child himself or herself shall not give her consent to be included in the study.

The study aims to address five main questions about children in difficult situations: a. What are the needs and concerns of children (girls and boys) in difficult situations? (gender influences); b. What are the circumstances of their movement from place of origin, in transit, and to their destination? c. What are the current programs, services, and mechanisms at various stages of their movement to respond to their concerns? d. What are the current gaps in the overall policy and response to the needs and concerns of children in difficult situations? e. What are the communication barriers faced by children in difficult situations?

Focusing on boys and girls in difficult situations, the main purpose of this situational analysis are the following: to provide baseline data about the situation of the sector, the factors to their mobility, and the circumstances before they leave their place of origin, in transit, and after they arrive at their destination; To provide information about the key actors working on this issue, the work they are doing, and the gaps in the programs and services; and to provide the basis for

humanitarian institutions to engage in work on this issue and how to address common communication barriers faced by the target population.

Related Literature

Typhoon Yolanda and other difficult situations like the 013 Zamboanga Siege has brought many children homeless and had lost their love ones. After the disasters children who have lost their love ones were severely traumatized and were not able to immediately gain mental stability and consciousness. Cases of trauma were manifested through their lost sense of hope and direction.

Children were exposed to severe danger especially during the looting period. They were endangered and exposed to various hazards both physical (structural) and chemical that could result to serious danger to their health and safety. As portrayed by the local and international news looting has been prevalent in Tacloban City. Some accounts made by the local personalities/authorities and as seen by private individuals, there were minors who were used or instrumental in illegally entering and unlocking the doors of commercial buildings (*cellphone and gadget merchandize*). Photographs of (almost) destroyed commercial buildings, the people crowded inside to get supplies of food, clothing, medicines and some furniture and fixtures. Amidst the crowd were children accompanied by family members bringing with them their bags, entering into the dark, full of debris and suffocating areas of the building looking for something to loot. Such scenario depicts major concerns of children and there had been situations also in which children were seen scavenging for things in hazardous places.

Insufficient supply of safe potable water was another difficult situation in the area because pipelines were generally damaged and water was contaminated. Sources of water were rain water and the deep wells which even turned salty. Several reported cases of diarrhea and other water borne diseases were common to children. Increase in cases of dengue, measles and other diseases have been reported. Maternal and child health was also at risk. (Manano, 2014). Such report reveals the range of deadly illnesses that afflicted the children. This also included the health of the babies in the womb due to lack of safe maternal and child care. Typhoon Yolanda (Haiyan) destroyed up to 90percent health facilities in the worst-affected areas, leaving children and families without access to basic health care at a critical time. Patients face long journeys and high costs to access the care they needed from other towns. Some childhood illnesses such as coughs and colds are aggravated by inadequate shelter that leaves children exposed to wind and rain. As to health

concerns, children in difficult situations noted most on their personal things such as health and hygiene, like vitamins and medicines. A child whose clothes were wet noted that after the typhoon she had a high fever because of the heavy rain and she had no available clothes to wear anymore. Children in difficult situations are exposed to dangers of the open environment but as well as the risks to their health.

As to issues on education, more than a million children were left without access to education. Thousands of classrooms were destroyed, makeshift ones were used and other schools are still used as evacuation centers. (Manano, 2014). This issue is vital because education serves as the most reliable developmental sources for children. Such devastating scenarios affect children in difficult situations particularly in their access to continuing growth and development as individuals who have high hopes in their future. Access to education is critical, because aside from their academic development, children pose a great need to expose themselves to their social mobility. In school, children learn and plays (interacts and socialize). It is the avenue for their expression and empowerment. A child interviewed says that she misses her friends, classmates and even her teacher. She considers school to be her second home, where she finds openness and comfort. However most of the schools in the area are still scarred with destruction and depict traces of tragedy. Such horrible scenes haunt children on their trauma and deteriorate their high hopes to live normal lives again.

Children's psycho-emotional exposure and vulnerability also makes them easy objects for sex traffickers. Several child rights groups and entities have already raised the alarm over the increasing vulnerabilities of children and women survivors to the perils of human trafficking specifically for sexual purposes. The Philippine National Police of Tacloban City recorded a number of children who are in conflict with the law and were engaged in various cases mostly theft and physical injury and violations of PD1619/RA 9344 after Yolanda. There have been cases when CICL are merely released due to coordination lapses and non-availability of holding space/center.

A household economic approach conducted in July last year by Save the Children and Food Economy group, concluded that, "In the absence of continued support, the poorest households will not be able to recover and the risk of falling back on negative coping strategies which will result in negative outcomes for children. Children worry as to what will happen to them if the relief stops to come and their parents may not be able to cope with poverty especially when they cannot find

jobs. A child being interviewed said that “our house still needs repair. My father also needs work. Sometimes we do not have money for food”. The economic activities and livelihood of communities and families affected by the typhoon were disrupted and are almost at standstill. This greatly affects children as the absence of any source would render children and their families to hunger and increase children’s vulnerability to violence and sexual exploitation.

In a study conducted by Arevalo (2003), she sought to measure the adequacy of programs and services of selected four local welfare agencies for street children in Zamboanga City. In her study, service adequacy was measured in terms of perception of the beneficiaries in terms of the level of satisfaction on services rendered, analysis of agency’s funding and other administrative requirements, perception of the staff in terms of adequacy’s program and resources, and in terms of their compliance to the requirement using the minimum standard requirement for the accreditation of child care agencies developed by DSWD.

The needs of the children were categorized below as expressed by the street children themselves namely:

- Physical-the need to provide for their basic needs such as food, decent shelter, and clothing’s;
- Health- the need to provide for their physical growth and development;
- Moral- the need to let them learn the proper standards of what is right and wrong, and to discern right from wrong;
- Educational- the need for an education that will facilitate gainful employment later on;
- Psychosocial- the need for them to be free from emotional and social conflicts such that they can effectively relate with their family and environment in general;
- Economic- the need for them and their families to have gainful employment or gainful livelihood projects.

Stated in the study conducted by Arevalo (2003) the adequacy of the programs are the following words, “The services of the agencies were generally considered as adequate by the children themselves. Lingap, Katilingban, and SDC staff’s perceptions are consistent but identified other services as inadequate such as psychological by the SDC, and protective services and psychological by the Katilingban group. HDES admits inadequacy of services for street children’s immediate needs such as food, shelter, and education, but their continuous outreach activities provide them the opportunity to interact with the children.

An assessment of the management support and operation revealed the following: All four centers considered funding requirements as adequate, but the minimum standard requirement shows that Social Development Center's fund allocation is way below the required standard for food requirements. On administrative support, all centers considered this particular concern as adequate, although some personnel mentioned poor system and still inadequate facilities for the center's use. This need is very basic considering the number of cases that they are handling. SDC has the most number of cases, since they utilize the three approaches, using the ratio of 1:20; the number is more than what the workers could handle. Personnel capability is adequate for all, similarly with supervisory support. They have good institutional linkage except for the HDES, which was considered inadequate. Physical facilities for street children were rated adequate by the three centers and inadequate by HDES.

Communication is an integral instinct of all living things. Communication is the exchange of information between two entities. Every interaction we have with another person, from the regular chitchat, waving of hands and winking of the eyes, is a form of communication. Verbal and nonverbal communication play a significant role to people who are likely to have interest in using language in conveying beyond the meaning (Medriano and De Vera, 2019). Today, communication has gone from individual levels of conversing to mass communication. The foremost aspects of communication are best understood when there is a scarcity of it.

In emergency situations, communication breakdowns between those asking for help and rescuers or responders can have consequences. They can, and sometimes do, create huge barriers between first responders and other people in need of immediate help. These communication breakdowns are often attributed to barriers that impede the delivery of complete and clear messages.

First responders face an especially critical need for communication. because the first to succeed in people in trouble, often under emergency conditions, first responders must be ready to accurately assess a patient's need so as to administer the right care within the field. With little access to interpreters, these hard-pressed heroes must believe simple, low-tech products to enable them to offer the simplest possible care to their patients.

But then, hardly ever do existing researches encompass what communication barriers are faced via those in hard situations, particularly children. There are many motives why interpersonal communications may fail. In many communications, the message won't be received exactly the

way the sender supposed and consequently it is critical that the communicator seeks feedback to check that their message is absolutely understood. Active Listening, Clarification and Reflection, which we will speak shortly, may additionally help, however the skilled communicator also needs to be aware of the obstacles to effective verbal exchange. There exist many barriers to communicate and these may additionally arise at any stage in the communicate process. Barriers may additionally lead to your message turning into distorted and also you therefore chance wasting both time and/or money by using inflicting confusion and misunderstanding. Effective verbal exchange includes overcoming these obstacles and conveying a clear and concise message.

Some usual barriers to effective conversation include:

- The use of technical terminologies.
- Emotional barriers and taboos.
- Lack of attention, interest, distractions, or irrelevance to the receiver.
- Differences in notion and viewpoint.
- Physical disabilities which includes speech impairment and listening difficulties.
- Physical barriers to non-verbal communication.
- Language variations and the difficulty in understanding regional accents.
- Expectations and prejudices which may lead to false assumptions or stereotyping. People often pay attention what they assume to hear instead of what's actually stated and jump to incorrect conclusions.
- Cultural differences. The norms of social interaction vary significantly in different cultures, as do the manner in which feelings are expressed. For example, the concept of private area varies among cultures and among distinctive social settings.

A skilled communicator must be aware of these barriers and try to reduce their impact by continually checking understanding and by offering appropriate feedback. When dealing with children in difficult situations, it is important that these barriers are recognized and observed among children who are most vulnerable during emergencies. It highly recommended that understanding how appropriate feedback can be given will be implemented when dealing with children in difficult situations. And it can only be possible when barriers are recognized.

Method

A desk review of existing literature or materials about the sector was undertaken prior to collection of data from primary sources such as the boys and girls in difficult situations through focus group discussions, key informant interviews, observations and other forms of data collection procedures. The findings drawn from the desk review was verified and updated through the focus group discussions, key informant interviews, observations, and other forms of data collection. The purpose of focus group discussion was to generate responses from the target sector about the topics at hand. A small group of ten to fifteen (10-15) members was formed composed of boys and girls in difficult situations which was led by a facilitator/moderator (interviewer) in a loosely structured discussion of the four main questions: 1. What are the needs and concerns of children (girls and boys) in difficult situations? 2. What are the circumstances of their movement from place of origin, in transit, and to their destination? 3. What are the current programs, services, and mechanisms at various stages of their movement to respond to their concerns? 4. What are the current gaps in the overall policy and response to the needs and concerns of children in difficult situations? 5. What are the communication barriers of children in difficult situations?

To substantiate and verify the findings of the desk review and focus group discussion; and to collect additional data to fill the gaps drawn; the key informant interview with people who know what is going on in the community particularly on the situations of children in difficult situations was conducted. The purpose of the key informant interviews was to collect information from a wide range of people—including community leaders, professionals, or residents—who have firsthand knowledge about the issue. These community experts, with their particular knowledge and understanding, have provided insights on the nature of problems and have given recommendations for solutions.

The study covered Tacloban, Zamboanga, and Caloocan City. Participants were children who experienced man-made induced emergency situations such as armed conflicts, and natural disasters like earthquakes and typhoons. Target groups also include children who have experienced violence or discrimination in the home or in the community, those who have been separated from their families, and those who have left home to live in the streets.

Results and Discussion

A. Needs and concerns of children (girls and boys) in difficult situations

A myriad of needs and concerns were articulated both by the children participants and key informants necessary to effectively respond to the needs of children on move, among others the following were highlighted: Access to health care; medicines and health personnel in nearby centers; however, medical personnel and medicines are not available; health center and hospitals are far. According to health worker respondents, children need medical attention, especially those who were traumatized and were emotionally and mentally affected since several children were showing mental trauma which could lead to several mental illnesses. It was mentioned with emphasis that medical clinics should be made available in the proximities of their shelters so that children's health problems can be responded immediately. Livelihood and source of sustainable income is also a problem. Government's "cash for work" is the only source at present". *A parent respondent noted that they are afraid that when the NGO assistance will be finished, they will not be able to recover the lack of benefits. They are asking for a sustainable livelihood program in order to have a sustainable means to feed their children.* There is the need for cheap and readily available food for everyone. As suggested by some of the barangay officials. *"Perhaps a small market has to be established where fruits and vegetables and other produce from nearby barangays can be sold; at the same time, the families have to be given space to plant vegetables and raise crops and livestock"*. Another respondent also added that relief food packs should also be made healthy and nutritious *and* should also be designed fitting to the bodily needs of children.

Further, several local health workers mentioned that a psychosocial support is a must for the children in difficult situations. This is very essential to children because they were severely traumatized by their experiences from the typhoon. Some of them cannot even sleep especially when it rains. Some of them were scared to go to the beach because they remember the heavy waves who washed out their family members and their properties. This should also be followed by some sessions of spiritual enlightenment in order for the children to be guided properly and will be shun away from the negative vices such as smoking, snipping rugbies and illegal drugs. Lecture forum on the rights of children and some parents who maltreat children and don't prioritize education for their children as suggested by the government sector representatives. Most of the respondents highly noted the importance of Education- for them to nurture their knowledge. This is very essential according to the respondents because this is where moral values are formed to

mold them as good citizens in the community. Enough School supplies should be given to them so that they will be motivated and can be able to fully participate in their scholastic activities. School bags; transport children to the school; is necessary to be given to community to and from school. There is no alternative school to go to. *“wala at medyo malayo ang paaralan na puede at mapagpipilian na gusting eskwelahan,”*

B. Circumstances of their movement from place of origin, in transit, and to their destination

The children described their lives from their original barangays to the evacuation centers and tents to the transitional center at present. The children felt the difficulties of their living in these transient settings. Families at the bunkhouses experienced difficulties such as crowded bunkhouses and hot low-ceiling houses, dirty, smelly resulting to illnesses among children. Food has also been scarce, supply of water insufficient and the place seems far from the school where children are enrolled. However, the families feel more secure living at the bunkhouses: “protecting their heads from the downpour of the rain”.

Those children from Jolo and Basilan were in difficult situations due to war, fire, threats from armed groups, those from Zamboanga were the ones who were maltreated, and victims of Trafficking. Some children were looking for their mother or father, they have dysfunctional families, , lack of knowledge regarding the responsibilities of the child, rights of child, laws related on the child and since they are innocent about these matters they have a negative image toward authorities (Police, Social Workers). Prohibited from begging in some areas so these children go to other places.

There are parents who are farmers (seaweed farmers) with very limited resources in terms of financial aspect, and there are also abusive parents that resulted some children to move away from their families. Some children came from broken homes (separated parents), and there are also children who belong to a family with many members in one residence resulting to being economically insufficient. Some children are emotionally unstable that’s why they are easily persuaded by peers to be involved in activities in the streets. Children choose to live in the streets because they feel free there compared to their homes where they often suffer from abuse and other forms of struggles. Some children know of others who live in the streets and they were convinced to join their group. Others chose to stay on the street to look for a job or to steal. Children who are

turned over by the police to the agency due to theft were eventually turned over to the agency in order to be provided with their needs and to help them change their lives.

The difficulties experienced with boys/girls while in transit; Boys: have the tendency of physically harm, threat, *baka malunod, baka mabangga ng truck*, engaged in petty crimes/quarrels, rambles with gangs. Girls: Can be molested along the way, can be used in prostitution, couriers of drugs.

C. Current programs, services, and mechanisms at various stages of their movement to respond to their concerns

The relief goods and services for the families and the children came when many NGO's and International Groups arrived with all kinds of assistance. The children have not expressed any problem as regards the relief operation. It was noted that the relief assistance of the government did not come as early as the first day after the typhoon when families with their children had nothing to eat.

Thousands of young children from displaced families in Zamboanga City in the grandstand complex were immunized against measles, rubella and polio from September to October, with the aid of the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC): "*Tinurukan po kame ng gamut daw po yun ng Red Cross nung andun po kame sa grandstand para daw po hindi kame magkasakit.*" (We were given shots of vaccines when we were still in grandstand, accordingly for us not to get sick.)

On the other hand, children referred to the agency from the streets were first and foremost provided with their survival needs such as clean clothes, food, education and shelter. Days after their intake in their respective foster care, they are provided with counseling and psychosocial therapy by the staff. They shall be oriented by the house rules and shall be encouraged to be rehabilitated to restore their normal lives. Activities are also regularly done for the children's development and positive growth. "*Nung dumating po ako sa center, pinaliguan tsaka pinakain po ako nina Ma'am. Tapos papaaralin raw po nila ako at dito na titira. Tapos sasabihin po nila mga house rules tsaka tiuturuan po kame ng magandang asal at yun pong alagaan rin yung kapwa bata namin sa center. May mga magpunta rin po ditong mga Ate tapos mag laro tsaka activity rin po kame.*" (When I arrived at the center, they bathed me and fed me. I was told that I will be sent to school and they taught me the house rules and good manners and how to treat and care for the

other children in the center. There are like big sisters to us who come here and teach us, conduct activities and games for us.) – tells a respondent from Akay Kalinga Center for Street Children.

Almost 2 years after the devastating disaster in the city induced by the rebel groups against the Philippine army, some of the families were already transferred in transitory sites consist of bunkhouses or single-detach housing units that are more comfortable to stay compared to the tents set up in evacuation centers. It is called transitory site since it only serves as the temporary shelter for the IDP-families while their permanent housing units are still being constructed. As to when these families will be granted with their housing units is yet to be known. “*Sabi po sa amin, temporary lag daw. Pero hanggang ngayon andito pa rin po kame.*” (We were told that this will only be temporary, but until now we’re still here.)

D. Current gaps in the overall policy and response to the needs and concerns of children in difficult situations

As to the implementation of the policy, it was noted by some respondents that there were no clear policies and programming of activities as to the distribution of relief goods to the victims of the particularly for children.

There are some biases in terms of identifying children recipients of some of the program, due to the lack of proper coordination and validation of recipients. Further, they noted that some of the selected team leaders who identify the children have favoritism .Political influence is being observed as the major factor in the difficulty of disseminating and distributing the programs to the victims of the typhoon.

Some of the programs such as the feeding program, and medical services are not continuous and there is no proper evaluation on the effectiveness of the programs. Some of the given food packs were already expired, therefore they lack proper checking. Some of the food packs were not suitable for consumption for children and some of them were not healthy and nutritious.

The permanent housing grants for these families, especially for the children who grew old and tired of moving from one place to another, are still being protracted by the slow pace of putting durable solutions that would allow the children to return home or to be resettled in safe locations in order to rebuild their lives, their livelihoods and their dreams. “*Nakakapagod na po yung palipat lipat kame. Mag eempake na naman tapos aalis. Sa susunod, aalis na naman kame dito,*” (It’s exhausting to move from one place to another. It’s even more tiring to have your bags packed then

in no time you will be told to transfer again.) complains a 15 year old girl participant from Buggoc Transitory Site. Although social preparations were undertaken prior to the transfer of the IDPs, which means security, livelihood, utilities like water and power connections, latrines/health and sanitation and camp management were already put in place, children still growls about how hard their lives have become in the new transitory sites. *“Napakahirap po ng buhay dito, kung dati po yung 50 pesos pwede nag pamalengke, dito po pamasahe pa lang yun. Tapos yung pagkuhaan po ng tubig, malayo, nag aaway pa po ang mga tao. Paminsan umaabsent na lang po kame kasi malayo nga po at wala na ring trabaho yung mga magulang naming dito.”* (Life here is way way harder. Before we could have 50 pesos and go to the market for food, but now, it serves for nothing else but fare to bring us downtown. Then, the water utilities are situated far from our home, people quarrels each other for the supply. There are times when we absent ourselves from school as we can’t afford any longer to walk to school and most of our parents lost their jobs making them unable to sustain our needs for school.), said a 16 years of age boy from Masepla Transitory Site. In Buggoc, the electricity supply does not sustain to illuminate the area against the darkness of the evening leaving the children vulnerable to emergencies and risks during the night: *“Pagka gabi po, madaming nahuhuloy sa tulay-tulay dahil wala ng pong ilaw. Hindi po kame nailawan pag gabi dito,”* (When night comes, we don’t have electricity. This is why a number had met accidents of falling in the wooden bridges as it’s all dark at night here.).

The whole percentage of the children interviewed is of great worry about their schooling and eventually reaching their dreams. They all have a clear picture of what they want they achieve though it varies from one child to another. It’s saddening how about an eighth of the participants have lost their will to dream on young as they are due to the tremendous situations they had to face earlier on. One boy from Buggoc tells the team: *“Gusto ko lang pong magkatrabaho at matulungan yung mama ko. Kahit kargador lang po ng mga isda sa palengke ayos na po, basta may kita. Ayoko na pong mangarap nang mataas, wala rin naman po kameng pera para makuha yun.”* (I just want to have a job, earn and help my mother. Even just as a porter of fishes in the public market will do so long as I earn. I have lost interest in dreaming highly as we can’t afford to fulfill that also.). A statement that is clearly an alarming threat for the future of the world’s children. Humanitarian aids haven’t had looked closely to the concerns on building the children’s self worth after how hard their young life had been. Although, majority are still with high hopes that they can be provided with the needed resources to mainly pursue their studies. *“Gusto ko pong*

makapagtapos ng pag-aaral. Sana po hindi macut yung sponsorship sa amin para maging social worker po ako at matulungan yung mga batang nasa kalye,” (I really want to finish my studies. I hope our sponsorship and funding will not be cut so I can be a social worker and help children on the streets also.), stated 4 out of 5 girls interviewed in Akay Kalinga Center for Street Children.

Children are all unaware of deep-rooted gaps and even the policies itself as they are so innocent with how the world operates yet were forced to learn it the hard way so soon. They will all say: *“Siguru okay naman na po yun. Tsaka hindi rin po naming alam talaga yung mga dapat na solusyon eh.”* (Maybe that’s already okay – pertaining to the services and programs provided for them. And we also don’t know really the right solutions.), when asked as to how they can evaluate the existing programs and services for them. All of them seem to be programmed to just accept what they are laid with on the table, take what is there and be contented though they deserve more than that. Only when lasting and well assessed solutions to address the needs and concerns of the children can the earth be a better place to live in. Until those durable solutions are in place, children will continue to remain displaced in sub-standard evacuation centres and transitional sites, sheltered in foster homes with affection and attention that are on shift and be only able to dream of a better life instead of living one.

E. Communication Barriers Faced by Children in Difficult Situations

When an emergency strikes, the lives of the children and their carers are most often put in the most vulnerable state. Homes are destroyed, properties devastated, and lives are lost. Also, in most cases after the onset of a difficult situation, children face barriers in communicating not only for their needs but also even for their emotions and thought. After the interviews and FGDs conducted to selected children in difficult situations, below are communication barriers identified by all of them:

Language Barriers Clearly, language and linguistic ability may act as a barrier to communication. However, even when communicating in the same language, the terminology used in a message may act as a barrier if it is not fully understood by the receiver(s). For example, a message that includes a lot of specialist jargon and abbreviations will not be understood by a receiver who is not familiar with the terminology used. As humanitarians, we are especially prone to making this mistake. We must remember to use language that can be understood by the receiver, especially

children. Children-appropriate language may not always mean that it is done verbally, sometimes communicating through play and actions are most effective.

Psychological Barriers The psychological state of the receiver will influence how the message is received. For example, if someone has personal worries and is stressed, they may be preoccupied by personal concerns and not as receptive to the message as if they were not stressed. Stress management is an important personal skill that affects our interpersonal relationships. Anger is another example of a psychological barrier to communication. When we are angry it is easy to say things that we may later regret and also to misinterpret what others are saying. More generally, children who have been into countless traumatic experiences and situations like victims of disasters and child trafficking finds it hard to express themselves right away. It is important that trust between the child and the carer is established so that proper messages are communicated by both parties and that interventions will be appropriate.

Physiological Barriers Physiological barriers may result from the receiver's physical state. For example, a receiver with reduced hearing may not grasp the entirety of a spoken conversation, especially if there is significant background noise. In evacuation centers, where it is crowded and people are in constant stages of shock and stress, it will be hard especially for children to communicate well. Most often, after emergencies, children take up adult roles and might be hesitant to be involved in such researches. It is important then for one to understand this and offer conducive spaces for them to be able to communicate their needs and thoughts despite their difficult situations.

Physical Barriers An example of a physical barrier to communication is geographic distance between the sender and receiver(s). Communication is generally easier over shorter distances as more communication channels are available and less technology is required. Although modern technology often serves to reduce the impact of physical barriers, the advantages and disadvantages of each communication channel should be understood so that an appropriate channel can be used to overcome the physical barriers. Children in difficult situations most often are denied of various channels of communication. There might be no signal in areas where they are located and technology may be hard to reach in areas where the most vulnerable children can be found.

Attitudinal Barriers Attitudinal barriers are behaviors or perceptions that prevent people from communicating effectively. Attitudinal barriers to communication may result from personality conflicts, poor management, resistance to change, or a lack of motivation. Children in difficult situations are not all one and the same. They are diverse and came from variety of cultures and have different ethnical preferences that have developed some attitudinal barriers when it comes to communicating. Effective receivers of messages should attempt to overcome their own attitudinal barriers to facilitate effective communication.

Implications

In relation to absence or gaps in the current policy of the concerned city governments on the needs and concerns of children in difficult situations, the institutional and legal frameworks still have to be worked out and formulated. Whether the causes of the movements of disadvantaged children are driven by natural and man-made incidents, or triggered by spontaneous and planned events and actions or government agencies, the government, more specifically at the local level, need to device ways and means to address the short and long term concerns of children in difficult situations and their families.

However, the local government, civil society and faith-based organizations, academic community and other humanitarian agencies have to recognize the rights and entitlements of children in difficult situations and their families that continue to suffer from mixed displacement and migration incidents. Framing the legal bases and structuring the responses experience may require qualitative assessment of the issues and concerns of children who are constantly threatening by multiple displacements due to varying incidents or events like environmental disaster, severe climate change and displacement processes.

Moreover, due to the diversity of factors influencing movement-related decisions and the growing protection needs and socio-economic safety nets of children in difficult situations and their families, the legal framework and institutional mechanisms have to address both the symptoms and causes of the successive and chronic movements of the children and families. A more holistic and multi-disciplinary approach is needed in order to ensure meaningful and fruitful integration and productive interventions for and on behalf of children in difficult situations.

For the legal framework and policy intervention to be responsive to the needs and concerns of children in difficult situations and their families a legal team has to be formed to structure the policies and programs of the city government for the protection and promotion of the tactical and strategic concerns of children in difficult situations. First, support from the key government agencies and organizations is vital in building collaborative and cooperative partnership with other private organizations and humanitarian institutions; second, the complementarity and supplementary among private and public institutions and organizations are critical in meeting the needs of children in difficult situations.

On the other hand, broad-based participatory consultations among children in difficult situations together with the parents and guardians have to be done to collect quantitative and qualitative data and information on the conditions of children in difficult situations and their families. Similar consultations may also be pursued among humanitarian agencies, corporate foundations, development and human rights organizations, women's and children's advocacy groups so that they can encourage and persuade the government to intervene positively to the concerns of children in difficult situations. Opting for needs and rights-based approaches will be very helpful for the children to move on with their fragile lives but consistently working towards a better quality of life with support from their parents and relatives.

Most of the communication barriers can be overcome by the skilled communicator. Obviously, bridging gaps in geography and communicating through disabilities and vulnerabilities are a topic for a different discussion. Below, are some tools which we can use to bridge barriers in communicating in difficult situations especially among children:

Active Listening Active listening involves listening with all senses. As well as giving full attention to the speaker, it is important that the 'active listener' is also 'seen' to be listening - otherwise the speaker may conclude that what they are talking about is uninteresting to the listener. By providing this 'feedback' the person speaking will usually feel more at ease and therefore communicate more easily, openly and honestly. There are both verbal and non-verbal cues that convey active listening. Non-verbal signs include smiling (if appropriate), making eye contact, nodding at appropriate times, and avoiding distractions. These non-verbal cues convey the message that you are interested in what the speaker has to say, and that your attention is fully invested. Offering verbal signs of active listening can also be useful. Reflecting on something the

speaker has said by asking a clarifying question is a terrific way to do this. Paraphrasing involves finding slightly different words to repeat the main idea of the speaker, and is also great way to show active listening.

Use Simple Language It's important to remember the audience that you're speaking to, and use language that can be easily understood. Avoid using medical terminology or jargon when speaking to clients and their families. People are often intimidated by such language, and can be afraid to admit that they don't understand the message being delivered. An important tool to use when speaking is to pause occasionally and ask questions to ensure that your message is being understood as intended. You may also allow the listener to ask questions to clarify any points.

Give Constructive Feedback Remember that feedback was part of the communication chain we looked at on the first page. While the feedback that you give the speaker/sender may occasionally be negative, it is important that it be constructive in nature. The intent of the feedback should be to further the abilities of the speaker. This will strengthen the interpersonal relationship, and enhance future communications.

Conclusions

Varying levels and forms of vulnerabilities are experienced by children in difficult situations and their families even though their movements are similar. They lose their economic and social support systems despite the obvious care of relatives and friends. Coping mechanisms are sometimes eroded during the different stages of their movements. Their resilience is likewise diminished due to absence of humanitarian and development institutions and organizations. The nature and character of local policy interventions could play a pivotal role in forming the outcomes to internal migration of families and children in difficult situations. Rather than seeing internal migration as a burden to the community, the policy interventions of the local government can smoothly facilitate the necessary support for the immediate needs and concerns of affected children and their families. The families of children in difficult situations can also be viewed as a productive force to be harnessed, nurtured and developed for the social and economic development of the community.

Responses to the episodic movements of children in difficult situations should fundamentally address what drove children and families to move. This requires the confluence and complementarity of many factors which include adaptation to the changing climate, humanitarian support and relief, enterprise formation and development whether community or home-based, protection of basic human rights and psycho-social intervention and even post-conflict recovery including integration to receiving community. Hence, the different types of support systems and mechanisms must be geared towards the mobilization of life-giving resources and performance of social responsibilities among receptive institutions, organizations and individuals to secure a firmer socio-cultural condition for children in difficult situations.

The permanent housing grants for these families, especially for the children who grew old and tired of moving from one place to another, are still being protracted by the slow pace of putting durable solutions that would allow the children to return home or to be resettled in safe locations in order to rebuild their lives, their livelihoods and their dreams. Humanitarian aids haven't had looked closely to the concerns on building the children's self-worth after how hard their young life had been. Although, majority are still with high hopes that they can be provided with the needed resources to mainly pursue their studies.

Communication barriers exist even on normal situations – worsen during difficult situations especially among children. Recognizing that communication barriers can affect the interventions given by humanitarians is a game changer for the situations of the children. But then, it will be more appreciable is communication barriers are first identified, recognized and bridged with the children themselves. After all, words, and language, matter. These communication barriers are challenging and the stakes are high. And while many humanitarian aid organizations are working to better integrate communication support and solutions in their programs, they need help from those who know language best — the localization and translation industry.

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Designing an Appropriate Instrument for ELT Curriculum Design Evaluation in Indonesian Islamic Higher Education

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Abstract

This study concerns the design of an appropriate instrument to evaluate the quality of English language teaching (ELT) curriculum design (course distribution) in Indonesian Islamic higher education institutions. The research design applied in this study was one of Research and Development (R&D) in which the researchers adopted the ADDIE model, standing for Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation. Then, the researcher invited two curriculum experts to validate the quality of questions included in the questionnaire. The developed draft was also validated by the experts, in order to create an appropriate questionnaire. Finally, after expert validation, the study has designed 21 questions on a questionnaire that can be utilised in evaluating course distribution in the ELT curriculum. The product of this study could be adapted or adopted by researchers conducting formative curriculum evaluation.

Keywords: *Curriculum Evaluation; ELT curriculum; Formative Evaluation; Rubric Evaluation*

Introduction

In recent years, there has been worldwide recognition of the problems associated with the demands of an appropriate higher education curriculum for the 21st-century generation. There are huge demands to create appropriate curriculums for the millennials in the wake of society's accelerating transformations in economy and technology (Zyad, 2016). Modern curriculum design

should address several skills that may play a fundamental role in the global workplace (at both national and international level) so students have opportunities equal to those of overseas graduates for better future careers in any sector (Schech et al., 2017; Westfield, 2002; Aquino et al., 2017; Kordi and Koosha, 2018). This issue presents urgent demands to address, and sets the current and ongoing challenge for Indonesian higher education institutions to design a curriculum appropriate to the aforementioned demands of the millennial generation in the 21st century (Bulusan, 2019).

To address these demands and the central challenge, the Indonesian government requires all departments in Indonesian higher education institutions (both public and Islamic) to develop their own curriculum that addresses 21st-century higher education standards. This is in line with Presidential Decree No. 8, 2012, the official endorsement of the Indonesian government to the implementation of a new curriculum concept (Insani et al., 2017; Latif, 2017; Susilo, 2015), well recognised as *Kurikulum Kerangka Kualifikasi Nasional Indonesia* (KKNI). This curriculum is designed to prepare all higher education graduates with adequate competences and skills to support their future careers, in both international and national markets. All graduates are expected to have not only hard skills, in terms of their understanding of theoretical frameworks and the practical domains, but also soft skills – their attitudes and values concerning other living things (human beings, animals, plants), and the universe as the whole). In addition, the teaching-learning materials should be well designed and well organised (Işik, 2018; Tomlinson, 2013) in order to stimulate students' critical thinking, creativity, leadership, collaboration, flexibility, and social skills, among other factors. These skills are comprehensively believed to play a vital role in addressing the demands of the 21st-century age of the internet (Ghaith, 2010; Gibson and Smith, 2018).

In line with government regulation from 2012 to the present day, higher education institutions do their best to design KKNI curriculums based on the directions of the Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education. This applies to all study programmes, particularly in English Language Teaching (ELT) departments. Unfortunately, some still experience hardships, and struggle to address the standards of a good government-required KKNI curriculum due to the lack of human resources, facilities, and adequate budgets. This is supported by the evidence that most research articles published in open access journals still focus more on reporting the way ELT departments developed their current curriculum; surprisingly, there has been no detailed formative or summative evaluation of the effectiveness of the KKNI curriculum, even though it was

implemented in 2012. It should be noted that information on what is going wrong and right with the KKNi curriculum is vital data for improving its implementation.

Generally, there are two kinds of curriculum evaluation, *Formative* and *Summative* (Taras, 2005; Haber and Mitchell, 2017). Formative evaluation comprises systematic procedures to provide information and highlight concerns in an effort to improve the quality of the curriculum. Such improvement can be carried out at the time of curriculum construction and implementation, but only when the curriculum is still in the process of development, where it focuses on the process more than on results (Richards, 2013). The main purpose of this evaluation is to provide direct input to curriculum developers regarding aspects of development that do not meet the required criteria. Data collected from this kind of evaluation is applied to improving these areas. Summative evaluation, on the other hand, is aimed at consideration of the results of curriculum development. These results can be revealed through curriculum documents, learning outcomes, or the impact of the curriculum on schools and society. With this evaluation, evaluators can consider whether a curriculum can continue because of its success and its continued relevance to the development and demands of the community, or whether it must be replaced due to failure and incompatibility with the demands of society.

Based on the issues outlined above, there is huge demand for systematic evaluation – formative and summative – on the implementation of the KKNi curriculum, since it has been applied for approximately seven years. Several aspects of the curriculum can potentially be addressed by evaluation, such as curriculum design, implementation, and assessment. Sukirman et al. (2017) reported in their case study of one Islamic university that the course distribution in the ELT department's curriculum were badly distributed in terms of course contents and credits, with some courses overlapping with others, and credits disproportionately distributed. However, another fundamental matter to be addressed before carrying out the evaluation is an appropriate instrument to be used in collecting data – this can be in form of questionnaires, interview questions, or worksheets for observation. Such instruments play a pivotal role in collecting accurate data dealing with the strengths and weaknesses of the KKNi curriculum, and poorly designed instruments can result in invalid data. Several instruments developed by experts – questionnaires, for example – are still limited in addressing the essential characteristics of the KKNi curriculum, such as graduate profiles, learning outcomes, courses, and others. Therefore, a study on developing an appropriate instrument for evaluating the KKNi curriculum is strongly needed.

The primary aim of the present study is to design an appropriate instrument for ELT curriculum design evaluation in Indonesian Islamic higher education. The intended instrument of this study is a questionnaire that consists of several statements addressing the design of the KKNI curriculum in ELT departments. In this case, the researchers developed a questionnaire to measure how the users of the KKNI curriculum organise distribution of ELT courses from the first to the last semester. In particular, this research seeks to address the following question:

- (1) *What kind of questionnaire is appropriately and properly used to evaluate distribution of courses in the KKNI-based ELT curriculum applied in Indonesian Islamic higher education?*

Research Method

The present study applied a research and development (R&D) research design. The main purpose of this approach was to design educational products that could positively contribute to the achievement of educational goals (Borg and Gall, 1989). Particularly, the present study adopted one of the qualified models in conducting R&D research, known as ADDIE – Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation, and Evaluation. This model was considered because it promotes steps which are simple to carry out, without ignoring the essence of the R&D principles. The design is presented in the following diagram:

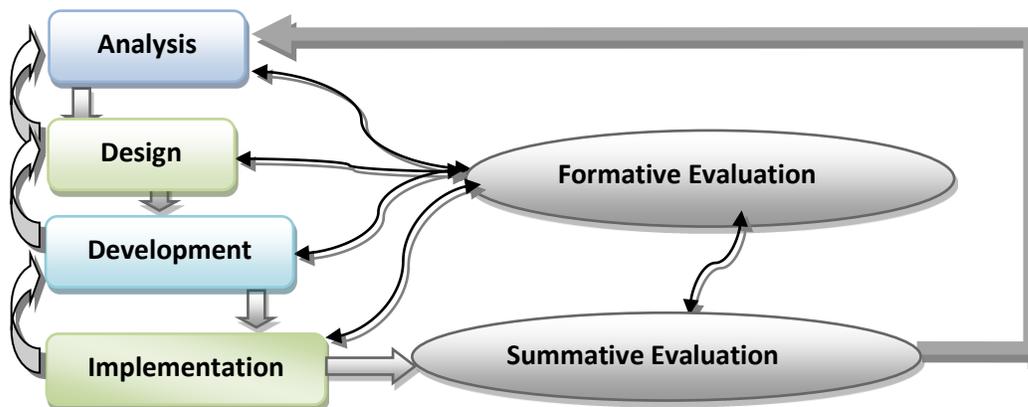


Figure 1. *ADDIE Model (McGriff, 2000 cited in Sukirman, 2018)*

The diagram summarises the researchers’ process in carrying out five procedures in designing the instrument based on the ADDIE model. Firstly, the researchers analysed the curriculum documents by focusing particularly on the distribution of courses in order to identify the actual conditions to be addressed in the developed questionnaire; this procedure is well known

as needs analysis (Akyel and Ozek, 2010; Benesch, 1996; Prihatin, 2018). The researchers also analysed the KJNI curriculum guidelines in order to find out their appropriateness and that of the curriculum product. Secondly, the researchers designed a questionnaire template in the form of a table and formulated appropriate statements addressing the actual condition of ELT course distribution. Thirdly, the researchers developed the template and the statements designed at the previous stage into an actual questionnaire. Then, the researchers implemented the questionnaire by trying it out on lecturers, in order to measure the readability of the statements, and to filter appropriate statements included in the questionnaire. Last but not least, the researchers carried out formative and summative evaluation on the questionnaire. Formative evaluation was conducted by involving two experts in evaluating the language used, the contents, the appropriateness, and other factors; the experts commented on the weaknesses and strengths of the questionnaire. In contrast, summative evaluation was conducted at the end of the project development in order to make a final judgement on the product.

The data collected in this study were qualitative, obtained from the experts' and lecturers' suggestions and feedback on the quality and appropriateness of the developed questionnaire. To collect the data, the researchers used a rubric consisting of the twenty one components of the developed questionnaire commented on by the experts and lecturers. In addition to data analysis, the researchers qualitatively analysed comments, notes, and suggestions collected from the lecturers and experts (Madehang and Sukirman, 2019).

Findings and Discussion

An initial objective of the project was to develop an appropriate instrument in form of questionnaire as stated in the following research question:

- (1) What kind of questionnaire is appropriately and properly used to evaluate distribution of courses in the KJNI-based ELT curriculum applied in Indonesian Islamic higher education?*

To deal with the aforementioned research questions, the researchers developed a questionnaire addressing the issues of course distribution in the ELT curriculum implemented in one of the Islamic higher education institutions. More specifically, the researcher formulated questions that could provide data on how the ELT curriculum designers distributed ELT courses in the KJNI curriculum. To develop an appropriate and qualified questionnaire, the researcher

proposed that the experts endorse its contents in order to maintain readability and the validity of data being collected. Through the experts' review, it was found that some questions tended to be repetitive and overlapping, so the researchers revised them based on these suggestions. In addition to questions subject to expert validations, some questions were not appropriate, since they did not address the essence of good course distribution. Another crucial element addressed by the experts was the layout of the questionnaire, which might negatively affect the users' attention.

The experts finally approved the developed questionnaire after the researchers revised it five times, addressing all comments, notes, and suggestions provided by the experts and lecturers. The final revision of the questionnaire consisted of three sections. The first stated the purpose of the questionnaire and instructed lecturers on how to answer the questions, by placing an 'X' against the choice of answer that best suited their views (see Table 3.2). The second section dealt with the lecturers' identity, status, courses they taught, and how long they have taught, as presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2. *Questionnaire section (instructions and lecturers' identity)*

Section	Description
Instruction	In order to improve the performance of the ELT Curriculum in Islamic Universities – Indonesia, we request input from the lecturers by their filling out this questionnaire. Give an X in the answer choices that best suit your view.
Lecturers' identity	Lecturer status <input type="checkbox"/> Permanent Civil Servant <input type="checkbox"/> Permanent Non Civil Servant <input type="checkbox"/> Honorary Course taught 1. 2. Teaching time Year(s) Month(s)

The last section comprised the main contents of the questionnaire. It consisted of four columns with the main titles 'No', 'Conditions', 'Questions', and 'Answer'. The questions were designed to address the curriculum design. These questions dealt with course organisation, course names, course descriptions, compulsory and optional courses, course credits, and so on. There are

21 (twenty one) questions addressing the design of the KKNI curriculum, as presented in Table 3.3. The answers column was particularly designed to collect quantitative data by using Likert Scale, and to collect qualitative data by asking respondents to provide objective reasons for their replies.

Table 3.3. *Lecturers' Questionnaire for the design of the KKNI-based ELT curriculum*

No	Conditions	Questions	Answer
1	In the group of personality development courses that apply to all departments, there is an English language course presented in Semester I.	From your perspective, if not a waste, is it appropriate that an English (general) course is presented in English Education Department?	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Neither agree nor disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree Explain your reason
2	An Indonesian Language course is presented in Semester III as the basis of knowledge and Indonesian language skills, especially in writing many Indonesian-language academic tasks carried out in semesters I and II.	In your opinion, is it appropriate that an Indonesian language course is presented in Semester III?	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Neither agree nor disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree Explain your reason

3 The Educational Philosophy course as applied to the philosophy of education in the realm of education presented in Semester III is aimed at enabling prospective educators or teachers to understand educational goals that are in line with the goals of human life.

In your opinion, is it appropriate to present the course in Semester III to students who require sufficient ability and maturity to understand the learning material in philosophical content?

Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither agree nor disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Explain your reason
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4 A Lesson Plan course is presented in Semester V

Can the material content be adjusted to the specifications of the ELT department?

Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither agree nor disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Explain your reason
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5 In some segments, Learning Evaluation courses presented in Semester V tend to overlap the Language Testing courses presented in Semester VI.

Do you agree that the two courses should be integrated into an English Learning Evaluation course?

Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither agree nor disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Explain your reason

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6 In some segments, the Learning Strategy courses presented in Semester IV tend to overlap the TEFL I courses presented in Semester VI and TEFL II presented in Semester VII. Do you agree that the two courses should be integrated into one English and Language Learning Strategy and Method course?

Strongly Agree

Agree

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree

Strongly Disagree

Explain your reason

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7 The course of Learning Technology (equivalent to Learning Media) is presented in Semester IV. Can the material content be adjusted to the specifications of the ELT department?

Strongly Agree

Agree

Neither agree nor disagree

Disagree

Strongly Disagree

Explain your reason

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8 In some segments, Curriculum Development courses that are presented in Semester V tend to overlap with ELT Curriculum and Material Development courses presented in Semester VI.

Do you agree that the two courses should be integrated into a course on Curriculum Development and English Language Learning Materials?

Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither agree nor disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Explain your reason

.....
 ...

9 In some segments, the Research Methods courses presented in Semester V tend to overlap with Research in ELT courses and Classroom Action Research.

Do you agree that the three courses should be integrated into one Research Methodology course in English Language Teaching?

Strongly Agree
 Agree
 Neither agree nor disagree
 Disagree
 Strongly Disagree

Explain your reason

.....
 ...

10 In the curriculum there are structured courses such as

According to you, is the presentation of different

Strongly Agree
 Agree

<p>Vocabulary I and II, Structure I, II, and III, and the like.</p>	<p>learning content significant?</p>	<p><input type="checkbox"/> Neither agree nor disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree Explain your reason </p>
<p>1 Translation I and II courses are presented in advance of Semantics, Sociolinguistics and Cross Cultural Understanding courses; while translation courses require an understanding of the meaning of Semantic, Sociolinguistic, and Culture from Cross Cultural Understanding and Anthropolinguistics (not in the structure) before studying Translation.</p>	<p>In your opinion, does the current arrangement affect the understanding of meaning and culture for those taking the Translation courses?</p>	<p><input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Neither agree nor disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree Explain your reason </p>
<p>2 In the 2013 Curriculum for language specialisation in high school, students are required to take part in Anthropology classes directed towards understanding the relationship between foreign languages and foreign cultures.</p>	<p>Do you think that the Anthropolinguistics course should be included as one of the compulsory subjects in the ELT department?</p>	<p><input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Neither agree nor disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree Explain your reason </p>

.....
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1 The Discourse Analysis course is Do you think that this Strongly Agree
3 a study that examines or analyses course should be Agree
 the language used naturally, both presented as one of the Neither agree nor disagree
 in written and oral form, so that compulsory subjects in Disagree
 students understand the nature of the ELT department? Strongly Disagree
 language, the process of Explain your reason
 language learning, and language
 behaviour.

 ...

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 ...

1 The Pragmatics course examines Do you agree that the Strongly Agree
4 the purpose of using language in course should be Agree
 its context. included as a Neither agree nor disagree
 compulsory subject in Disagree
 the ELT department? Strongly Disagree
 Explain your reason

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1	Unlike the Introduction to Linguistics courses that aim to study the clarity of language, Language Philosophy aims to examine the nature of language.	Do you agree that the subject of Language Philosophy should be included as a compulsory subject in the ELT department?	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Neither agree nor disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree Explain your reason
1	Teaching English and Teaching English Literature are two different subjects, and both are taught in secondary schools.	Do you agree that the Teaching English Literatures course should be included as a required subject to accompany the Introduction to Literatures course?	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Neither agree nor disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree Explain your reason
1	Unlike Psycholinguistics, which reviews how language is first obtained and processed by humans, the Second Language Acquisition course is a study of bilingualism or bilingualism and	Do you think that this course should be presented as one of the compulsory subjects in the ELT department?	<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Neither agree nor disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree Explain your reason

its influence in learning foreign languages.
 ...

 ...

 ...

1 In accordance with the concept, In your opinion, is it still Strongly Agree
8 elective courses are logically worth maintaining this Agree
 optional or can be chosen by model of presentation of Neither agree nor disagree
 students based on their interests. elective courses, without Disagree
 In theory, elective courses can be flexibility for students to Strongly Disagree
 packaged (for example, 1 choose courses that they Explain your reason
 package of 4 interrelated are interested in?
 courses) or one per unit is
 selected, according to the
 number of credits required for
 fulfilment.

1 On the university's With this programme, is Strongly Agree
9 recommendation, the language it still relevant to include Agree
 programme from the Language English and Arabic Neither agree nor disagree
 Development Centre requires all courses in the group Disagree
 students without exception to subject structure? Strongly Disagree
 take foreign language learning Explain your reason
 (English and Arabic).
 ...

 ...

 ...

	
	...	
2	In the concept of the Semester	In your opinion, with the
0	Credit Unit, with a 'shopping' concept of SKS system (not a package), students are given the freedom to choose unstructured courses in the current semester, or in higher or lower semesters, according to the capacity of students planning and completing a programme of lectures, with a maximum limit of 24 credits.	shopping, is it still worth maintaining the package system?
		<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Neither agree nor disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
		Explain your reason
	
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2	The ELT Curriculum contains a	In your opinion, are
1	number of general courses and a number of expert courses to develop graduate competencies.	courses presented and/or taught in line with the demands of the workforce?
		<input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Agree <input type="checkbox"/> Neither agree nor disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Disagree <input type="checkbox"/> Strongly Disagree
		Explain your reason
	
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The options within this questionnaire were designed by adapting the Likert Scale (Ivanov et al., 2018), an approach favoured by many researchers in developing their research instruments.

The product of the present study completely supports the concept of the Likert Scale questionnaire in evaluating the course distribution in the ELT curriculum. This use of the developed questionnaire is expected to improve the quality of teaching materials for each course in ELT departments in Indonesian Islamic higher education, based on the criteria proposed by Işık (2018).

Conclusion and Recommendation

This study set out to develop an appropriate instrument for evaluating the course distribution in the KKNi ELT curriculum implemented in Indonesian Islamic higher education. One of the more significant outcomes of this study is the researchers' success in designing a questionnaire that could be utilised in analysing course structures in the ELT curriculum. An implication of this is the possibility that curriculum workers can adopt or adapt the questionnaire in conducting formative curriculum evaluation in ELT departments; this can help them to save time, money, and energy, because this questionnaire offers them an alternative approach. One of the strengths of this study is that it presents a comprehensive model of questionnaire design, based on the suggestions and feedback of experts – it can be claimed that this questionnaire is totally appropriate for the curriculum workers. In contrast, the present study was also subject to a number of potential methodological weaknesses, since the researchers conducted experts' validation only to measure the readability and appropriateness of the questionnaire; they carried out no experimental study to assess the effectiveness of the questionnaire. In addition, the experts' responses were subjective, and therefore susceptible to recall bias. Therefore, further investigation and experimentation into this questionnaire is strongly recommended.

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Language Learning Strategies, Gender and Proficiency of Pre-Service ESL Learners

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Abstract

This study examined on the relationship between language learning strategies, gender, proficiency of pre-service ESL Learners. The study reports on the current language strategies used by pre-service ESL learner students enrolled at Isabela State University's College of Education-Cauayan City Campus. The subjects of the study were 12 males and 36 female students. The study also investigated the frequency of strategies use among these students according to gender and proficiency variables. For this purpose, a questionnaire was administered to 48 participants. Result of this study showed that the highest rank (84.4%) was for Metacognitive strategies while the lowest was (54.2%) was for Affective strategies. The results also pointed to significant differences for the strategies in favor of good learners.

Keywords: *Language Learning Strategies, Gender, Proficiency, and ESL Learners*

Introduction

The primary concern in most of the research on language learning strategies has been on identifying what good learners do to learn a second or foreign language (Shmais, 2000). One of the significant factors in the success of ESL learners is the frequent use of learning strategies in language classroom which may contribute to further aspects involved in second language acquisition (Yilmaz, 2010). The identification of how learners process new information and what kinds of strategies they employ to remember as well as to learn or remember the information is

very much important (Shmais, 2000). This study explored the relationship between language learning strategies and other aspects which influenced the process of acquisition. The study has been undertaken to investigate about the language learning strategies used by pre-service ESL learners at Isabela State University, Cauayan City, Isabela.

English language learning strategies, include the techniques that learners are using to be able to remember what they have learnt—their storage and retrieval of new information (Rubin, 1987) and Shmais 2000). Rubin (1987) and Yilmaz (2010), define learning strategies as any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage retrieval and use of information. Moreover, Brown (1994), Chamot and Kupper (1989), Shmais (2000), state that LLSs also include receptive strategies with the former dealing with receiving the message and the latter which relates to communication. LLSs are strategies that the learners are continuously using to improve their progress in acquiring, storing, retaining and using information in second or foreign language (Oxford, 1990) and Yilmaz (2010).

O'Malley et.al (1985) categorized strategies into metacognitive strategies (i.e. those that have planning, directing or monitoring (Shmais, 2000; Yilmaz 2010). Oxford (1990a) on the other hand, divided the strategies into direct and indirect, involving information, memory behaviors, vocabulary knowledge, grammar rules and thought and mental processes (Shmais, 2000 and Yilmaz, 2010). In addition, Oxford (1989) emphasized six categories in her strategies Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) namely: Memory strategies (e.g. representing sounds in memory), Cognitive strategies (e.g. analyzing and getting the idea quickly), Compensation strategies (e.g. switching to mother tongue), and Metacognitive strategies (e.g. linking new information) (Yilmaz, 2010). Moreover, Rubin (1987) classified strategies in terms of processes contributing directly or indirectly to language learning (Shmais 2000). Yilmaz (2010) states that many researchers like O'Malley et. al. (1985), Oxford (1990a), Gohen et al. (1996), and many others studied strategies employed by language learners during the process of foreign language learning.

Chamot and Kupper (1989) cited by Shmais states that it is apparent that all language learners employ LLSs of some kind; nevertheless, the frequency and variety of use diversity between different learners and depend on a number of variables use. Batang (2010) identified that prospective teachers of English vary in the strategies they employ in language learning either second or foreign. There are strategies that are most beneficial, but altogether, they contribute to

language learning. In addition, according to Fedderholt (1997), the employment of various language learning strategies by capable language learners can appropriately enhance their language skills in a better way.

The application of LLSs is consistently connected with language proficiency (Green and Oxford, 1995; Wharton, 2000) and Yilmaz (2010). Generally, it is concurred that employment of language learning strategies is beneficial on language proficiency (Shmais, 2000 and Yilmaz, 2010). Moreover the use of suitable language learning strategies oftentimes results in improved proficiency or achievement overall or specific (Oxford et. al, 1993; Thompson and Rubin, 1993). In addition, Chamot and Kupper (1989) assert that successful language learners exert to choose strategies that work well together in a highly orchestrated way, tailored to the needs of the language tasks.

Aside from language proficiency, there are other factors that influence the strategies that the language learners select and employ. For example, one factor that has been explored by a number of researchers was gender. In language learning strategy studies embracing gender, the result have usually favored females as more frequent users of strategies (Green and Oxford 1993; Oxford 1993; Shmais 2000; Yilmaz 2010).

Statement of the Problem

Based on the research discussed above, this study examined the relationship between and among language learning strategies, gender and proficiency in ESL classroom. Specifically, it attempted to answer the following question:

1. What are the language learning strategies that are most frequently used by the pre-service ESL learners?
2. Is there a significant difference in strategy use due to gender?
3. Is there a significant difference in strategy use due to language proficiency as reflected by students' university average?

Significance of the Study

The study aimed to contribute to a thorough investigation of the current language learning strategies employed by pre-service teachers enrolled at Isabela State University, Cauayan. In addition, it was intended to explore the relationship between and among language proficiency, gender, proficiency and language learning strategies. The results of the study will provide teacher education institutions (TEI's) inputs or feedback to help them examine their respective pre-service and in-service programs. Moreover, it will enable them to prepare, organize and structure teaching techniques to conform to the learner's language learning strategies.

Language Educators from Teacher Education Institutions in particular, will be benefited. They will be provided with reliable and appropriate skills that serve as a guide for curriculum revisions. The findings will be of great help to the learners as they become aware of the different language learning strategies that they can use to study language effectively.

Scope and Limitation

The study is mainly concerned with the assessment of the language learning strategies used by pre-service ESL learners. Moreover the study was conducted to explore the relationship between and among the different aspects linked to LLSs: gender and proficiency.

The participants in the study were all pre-service ESL learners from second year to fourth year enrolled at Isabela State University's College of Teacher Education. The scope of the study involved distribution or floating of questionnaire to participants with regard to their language strategy used and proficiency.

Methodology

The descriptive research design was used in the study. The study used the random sampling technique. All the students were given questionnaires during the data gathering phase of the study. Table 1 presents the gender and the percentage of the participants according to their gender per year level.

Table 1. Participants per year level

Year Level	Gender	No. of participants	Percentage (%)
Second Year	Male	4	8.11
	Female	19	38.7
Third Year	Male	3	6.12
	Female	11	24.4
Fourth Year	Male	5	10.2
	Female	6	12.5
Total		48	100%

Data Gathering and Research Procedure

In order to collect information on strategy use, Oxford's (1990) 50-item Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL, version 7.0) was adapted for the study.

The SILL was developed by Rebecca Oxford (1990a) as an instrument for assessing the frequency of use of language learning strategies by students. It appears that SILL is the 'most often used strategy scale around the world', and the only language learning strategy instrument that has been checked for reliability and validated in multiple ways (Oxford and Burry-Stock, 1995).

The 50 items in the SILL comprised six categories: memory, Cognitive, the point Likert scale for which the learners are guided to respond to a strategy description such as 'I try not to translate word-for-word', and the criteria used for evaluating the degree of strategy use frequency are: low frequency use (1.0-2.49), moderate frequency use (2.5-3.49), and high frequency use (3.5-5.0).

Data Analysis

Data elicited from students' responses to each item in the SILL were analyzed with the help of a statistician. The questionnaires were distributed during students' regular Pre-service ESL learners' classes in the first semester of school year 2016-2017. In the present study the SILL questionnaire had an alpha reliability coefficient of 0.84. the ANOVA test was used to determine significant variation in mean strategy use by gender and proficiency.

Results and Discussion

On the basis of the results of the strategy analysis on items, six strategy groups were identified. Table 2 presents rank ordering of the strategies according to their frequency of usage as follows:

The descriptive statistics for the total score with respect to overall strategy use ($M=3.74$) indicate that the participants are high strategy users. It is evident that students reported to have high to moderate proficiency of use of each of the six categories with mean statistics ranging between $M=4.17$ and $M=2.71$. The means and percentages of table 2 show that Metacognitive strategies followed by Social, Cognitive, Compensation, and Memory, while Affective strategies ranked the lowest mean (2.71). More specifically, the emerging picture is that all the students indicated a preference for more Metacognitive, Social, Cognitive, Compensation, and Memory strategies and fewer in Affective strategy.

Table 2. Means and percentages of strategy groups

Year Level	Gender	No. of participants	Percentage (%)
Second Year	Male	4	8.11
	Female	19	38.7
Third Year	Male	3	6.12
	Female	11	24.4
Fourth Year	Male	5	10.2
	Female	6	12.5
Total		48	100%

In response to the question on the significant differences at ($p=.05$) in strategy use according to gender variable, the computed (t) value on all strategies respectively were (-.70, .41, .17, -.53, -.21, -.6). As illustrated in table 3, there is no significant difference among all the strategies according to gender. Such a result explicitly demonstrated that females and males have more or less equal frequency of strategy use. This finding is inconsistent with previous (Dreyer and Oxford, 1996; Ehrman and Oxford, 1989) and other language researchers which favored females as more frequent users of strategies in comparison with those of males.

Table 3. Results of t-test for the differences in strategy use according to gender variable

Gender	N	Mean	SD	t	t-tabulated	
					.05	.01
MEM: Male	12	3.58	.52	-.70	NS	NS
: Female	36	3.71	.57			
COG: Male	12	4.05	.54	.41	NS	NS
: Female	36	3.92	1.05			
COM: Male	12	3.45	.67	.17	NS	NS
: Female	36	3.83	.66			
MET: Male	12	4.12	.50	-.53	NS	NS
: Female	36	4.19	.37			
AFF: Male	12	3.8	.67	-.21	NS	NS
: Female	36	3.85	.74			
AFF: Male	12	4.06	.22	-.6	NS	NS
: Female	36	4.18	.70			

Language proficiency was examined by the students' university average. The students were classified into three groups according to their University general point averages; those whose averages were between 3.5-4.0 (good) and those whose averages were between 2.5-3.5 (fair) and those averages were lower than 2.5 (poor).

Table 4. Strategy means according to university averages

Strategies	Good	Fair	Poor
Memory	4.1	3.29	2.4
Cognitive	4.2	3.4	2.3
Compensation	3.71	3.1	2.4
Metacognitive	3.42	3.2	2.1
Affective	4.0	3.1	2.4
Social	3.5	3.4	2.1

All these values and strategy means displayed in the table 4 indicate that there are significant differences at ($p=.05$) in strategy used due to the students' university averages have a strong effect on students' strategy used to large extent. The ANOVA (f) test indicated that there were significant differences for all strategies

The result of this study reveal that English major student's language learning strategy used at Isabela State University, as measured by the SILL, ranges from high (4.17) to low (2.71), with Metacognitive strategies employed more frequently (4.17). Metacognitive strategies involved linking new information with already known one, self-monitoring. Affective strategies which ranked the lowest (2.71) are strategies used for handling feelings, attitudes and motivations. The overwhelming majority of the participants were reluctant to use Affective strategies, e.g. they did not encourage themselves to store and retrieve information when they had to cope with a demanding task. The result of the study is consistent with the most of the relevant studies which favored Metacognitive strategies as containing the highest use of the overall strategies (Magogwe and Oliver, 2007; Shmais, 2003; Oxford, 1990; Sheorey, 1998).

As might be expected, the findings obtained from the study are consistent with the general results of previous language learning strategy studies (Green and Oxford, 1995; O' Malley and Chamot, 1990; Magogwe and Oliver, 2007) and at the same time provide new insights into strategy use. Like from the previous research, this study found out that language learning strategies were widely used among more proficient learners than less proficient learners. However, the results of the current research showed some differences regarding English major students' preferences for the frequency of usage of learning strategies at Isabela State University's College of Education-Cauayan City, Isabela.

The researcher believed that students' use of particular strategies could be attributed to culture and educational context as well as language repertoire in Isabela State University where students are supplied lesser opportunities to use functional practice strategies especially in large classes. It is evident that particular strategies may be culturally of more value to the students, and therefore preferred, or it may be that the educational experience of the students leads them to prefer some strategies (e.g. Metacognitive and partly Social strategies) over others.

Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This study aimed at examining the language learning strategies of pre-service ESL learners at Isabela State University. The results showed that the students were high to moderate users of strategies marked the highest usage which indicated that such strategies could be related to cultural and educational background differences. The tests showed no significant difference for gender and proficiency and overall strategies. It is obvious that language learning strategies facilitate the learning of the target language by the language learner. Language learners in general use language learning strategies in the learning process (Shmais, 2000).

Since the factors like age, gender, personality, motivation, self-concept, life-experience, learning style, etc. affect the way in which language learners learn the target language, it is not reasonable to assume that all language learners use the same good language learning strategies or should be trained in using and developing the same strategies to become successful learners. Both learners and teachers need to become aware of the learning styles and strategies through strategy and instruction.

Attempts to each student to use learning strategies (called strategy training or learner training) have produced good results (Rubin and Thompson, 1994). The main objective of such attempts is to follow students to become more aware of their preferred learning strategies and to help them become more responsible for meeting their own objectives. Such objectives can be only achieved when students are trained in strategy use so that they become more independent and effective. However, before teaching students how to use strategies effectively, teachers should be trained in strategy instruction and assessment they should also be trained how to implement strategy instruction inside their classrooms.

The most significant conclusion that can be drawn from the findings of the study is the need to stimulate the use of the less frequent strategies by the learners. The less frequent strategy in this study (Affective) can contribute to the success of a program of classroom strategy instruction. It is worth mentioning that the current survey study yielded substantial results concerning some differences between male and female learners.

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Facebook Group as Media of Learning Writing in ESP Context: A Case Study at Hasanuddin University

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Abstract

This research measures the effectiveness and efficiency of Facebook Group benefits as learning writing media in ESP context. One of the objectives of ESP is to design learning English in specific situations and ways if it compared to General English teaching. It is referred to as the ESP context because students use it to learn with specific objectives and allow for media training for learners in addition to what is done in the classroom. The objectives are 1) to measure student achievement in improving writing skills through Facebook Group, 2) to reveal the extent of the usefulness of Facebook Group in enhancing the ability to respond to

student writing with fellow members, and 3) to find out respondents' perception of the use of Facebook Group as Media Learning in ESP Context. This research uses a descriptive method and the data were taken through an on-line questionnaire on 120 students from Department of English Language Studies, Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Hasanuddin University, as the target group in this research. The result of the research shows that Facebook Groups can foster learners' self-confidence to interact and respond spontaneously in English, which may not be experienced in conventional classes. The implications of this study offer an alternative teaching English, especially writing through Facebook Group in ESP context.

Keywords: *Facebook Group, ESP context, writing response, writing media*

Introduction

Many ways can be done to improve English skills for non-native speakers of foreign languages, especially writing. One good method is to give learners the opportunity to interact with each other and respond in writing. In the ESP class, learners are given special lessons about many *hows*; to post status, to response a comment, to debate, to share an opinion or anything about writing short responses in a specific topic. Even though it may be intimidating to a lot of people, anyone can get used to writing with a little discipline and willingness to learn (Milne, 2017). This strategy is intended for the learners to dare to write with their own ideas and words. Accustomed to writing is a good and beneficial habit.

Writing must be accustomed, and by writing someone can share experiences, knowledge and information for others. Write is habit. Someone has to multiply exercise. In this way, someone's writing ability will increase in line with the goals to be achieved or what is presented in writing.

In line with what was stated above, to focus on teaching, one approach that can be used is English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach. Following what Hutchinson et.al (1987: 19) stated that ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learner's reason for learning. In this context, the purpose of learning learners like this is to improve their writing skills, at least in the form of responses, comments, arguing something through Facebook media.

In other words, foreign language teachers must note that this type of class activity can be very useful, because the desired form of communication continues. Asking students to use English in their posts or any other form of entertainment activity on social networks, to let them

be free in the choice of topics, actually means doing everything as before, but usually in English (Polok & Harezak, 2018). One of the keywords here is writing in English.

Writing is a form of communication that allows a person to express their feelings and ideas on paper/screen. For this reason, knowledge and arguments are needed to convince readers through well-compiled texts. Different with printed publications, according to Bray (2019), as traditional print-based publications such as newspapers, magazines, and trade journals have move online, they now compete with blogs and social media for advertising revenue, audience attention, and influence over debates.

In line with the presence of social media technology, various groups have tried to use the media not only to interact socially, share experiences, and promote goods for example, but for learning media. Language teaching also benefits from the presence of this social media, especially reading and writing. For this study, it focuses on utilizing Facebook for writing.

To improve writing skills, one method that is applied is to provide opportunities for learners to interact responsively and reactively to something in writing, for example through comment on Facebook status or to reply to a comment (for sharing ideas). However even so, the use of Facebook in general and focusing on the general language learning (Hayashi, 2011; Razali & Khatimah, 2013).

Since the discovery of Facebook in 2004 by Mark Zuckerberg, it has expanded significant developments to reach billions of users. One of the most users in Asia is in Indonesia. Facebook is essentially a successful online social network site (Perez, Araiza, & Doerfer, 2013). Facebook as a network at first targeted high school and college students but it goes globally and actively gains its popularity of all people ages (Blattner & Fiori, 2009). In recent years, Facebook has been used creatively for media teaching foreign languages, especially English.

The purpose of the Facebook group is to provide specific experiences for members to interact chat in English. This is a typical way. Through the media, they will be involved in one chat communication on or topic. Giving comments to one status that is read, responding to each other among members, and from there everyone has the opportunity to express their responses, proposals, and/or objections to something, which in turn increases the ability of members to write something.

FB group (specific group for this research) was established with the aim of encouraging members to interact reactively in English. By interacting on Facebook it will automatically improve writing skills. There are at least five advantages that there are on Facebook: 1) feeling

close to the members of the reader, 2) getting feedback quickly, 3) it is easily controlled, 4) it can display text and images on the wall, 5) personal communication between people can be done in the inbox messenger, and 6) no subscription fee – it is free. Moreover, Reyes, et al. (2018) mentioned that through Facebook, members are able to easily share and post about their feeling. In their study, they found that the respondents describe a situation, object or mental state and speakers have exemplified their feeling in interjection.

Facebook's strengths can help teach writing in ESP context outside the classroom. The lesson plan model depends on the teacher/instructure with the desired feedback model. Feedback can be given through comment facilities or more personal can be done through inbox messenger. Feedback through comments can be read by all members while those through messenger inbox can only be read by those concerned. Facebook's facilities are increasing and now the messenger inbox can be used to send Word files.

According to Hayashi, 2011; Razali & Khatimah, 2013, in Facebook students can enjoy written communication freely by sharing their ideas, via Facebook status or note. They also can comment to other's posting, and or share link, and video as well. Through Facebook users increasingly have the opportunity to interact with others for free without space and time limits.

In line with advances in technology and social media, the so-called Facebook, in turn, it can be used for language teaching, in ESP context for example. Once again, social media can be used to learn English. According to Polok & Harezak (2018), learning English is, beyond any doubt, aimed at achieving the proper level of communication. This is, of course, very necessary for non-native speakers. The advancement of technology and media affecting education is also stated by Susilowati (2008); "Education is increasingly affected by the advent of new technologies and media. These are having a significant impact on second language teaching and in the process raising questions about the specific language skills required to engage in and the potential of technology to radically change the experience of learning languages." (Susilowati, 2008)

Objectives of the Research

Main objectives of this research were to investigate students' perceptions toward the use of Facebook group to facilitate learners' needs in writing comments, questions, replies, complains, suggestions, and so on which are measured in Facebook Group interacting with fellow members. Survey was conducted by November 2018. The data were taken through an

on-line questionnaire on 120 students from Department of English Language Studies, Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Hasanuddin University.

This study aims to 1) measure student achievement in improving writing skills through Facebook group, 2) find out the usefulness of Facebook group in improving the ability of student to write responses to fellow members, and 3) reveal respondent's perceptions on the usefulness of Facebook group as learning media for writing in ESP Context.

How do you personally evaluate the importance of the following of coordinated care? Responses of respondents are as follows;

Table 1. Respondents' perception on the usefulness of Facebook Group as Media of Learning for Writing in ESP Context

How important is Facebook Group helping you to write ...?	very important	important	so-so	less important	not important
comments	60	56	4	0	0
Questions	19	48	26	27	0
Replies	48	22	29	21	0
Complains	22	52	29	17	0
Suggestions	52	47	12	9	0
Refusals	47	23	31	19	0
words you pick up	24	42	51	3	0
Expressions	58	50	8	4	0
Dates	15	52	39	14	0

Table 1 above shows that respondents' perception in the category 'very important' and 'important' reach the points above 50% of 120 respondents. Obtaining numbers in a row looks as follows: 96% comments, 90% expressions, suggestion 82.5%, complains 61.6%, replies 58.3%, refusals 58.3%, questions 55.8%, dates 55.8, and words you pick up 55%.

Data of Table 1 indicated that respondents' perception is positive and they perceive Facebook group is important to help them in writing their ideas on Facebook. Even though there were also respondents who considered that Facebook was less important as learning media for writing but the amounts not significant.

Method

The target group for this research project is students of Hasanuddin University (post-graduate of English Language Studies, Faculty of Cultural Sciences). Procedures of collecting data were conducted through some steps. Each member is registered in the Forum of ELS S2 Students & Alumni - FIB UNHAS (<https://www.facebook.com/groups/463743070485848/>).

This is a close Facebook Group. This group is intended to only be accessed by registered members. The purpose of this group is that interaction and reading status can only be done by members of the group itself. In this way they feel that all chats can only be read by the members themselves.

To utilize this Facebook Group as a Media Learning Writing in ESP Context, each member must be registered legally and controlled, and the results of their interaction in English are monitored by the researcher (as an admin). The admin invites each prospective participant and checks the membership members (to notify). As such, an administrator is entitled to control and control one's membership.

Hasanuddin University ESP Class

Teaching languages in the context of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) was started around a half century ago (Tony and John, 1998). From the early 1960s, ESP has grown to become one of the most prominent areas of English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching as today. Its development is reflected in the increasing number of specific studies related to the ESP context. Today, some universities are offering ESP courses to students of English Language Studies of non-native speakers of English.

English Language Studies (ELS) of Hasanuddin University is one of the institutions as mentioned above. The ESP courses offered to train students to understand the principle of ESP course, ESP movement, and the growth of ESP over past few years. It must be clear that ESP should in specific teaching purposes, situations, specific goal, and in a different methodology from that of General English.

After 2010, the ESP course started is taught both conventionally and some are taught by blended learning. Gradually, conventional teaching began to be abandoned and new strategies in the form of blending learning and online systems began to be popular. This is not only limited to some other language skills in English but especially in writing lessons.

In line with this fact, teachers creatively utilize social media as a learning tool. One of them is Facebook Group. One reason is that Facebook is a medium of writing, expression, giving feedback, comments, suggestions and even complaints. All group members can be actively involved in interaction, even though there are those who are passively involved, but they continue to read. Thus, a positive perception of the function of Facebook Group as Media of Learning Writing in ESP Context looks very good. Of course this is in line with ESP-based

teaching which aims to maximize a learning goal to achieve maximum results effectively and efficiently.

In fact, teaching ESP classes in relation to General English classes requires different strategies in which the focus is more on certain parts of the course than on skills. The ESP class at Hasanuddin University looks quite attractive to students.

The Importance of Writing Skill for Non-Native Speaker

There are several reasons why writing is the main focus of this research. Based on the survey, which was conducted on 120 students on the difficulty level of the skills of the four macro skills, their answers looked as follows:

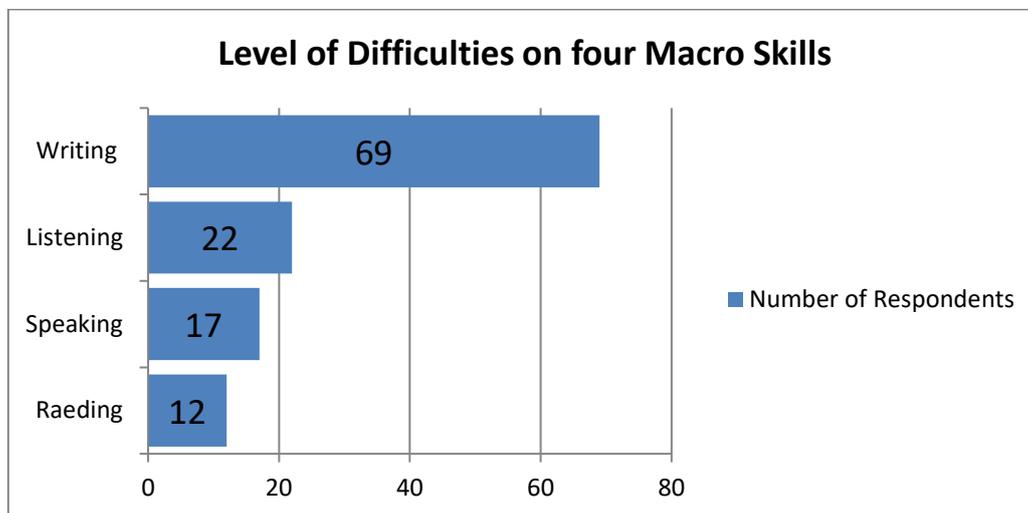


Figure 1 Level of Difficulties on four Macro Skills

Respondents' answers were 69 (58%), 22 (18%), 17 (14%), and 12 (10%) respectively. This data shows that writing is one of the most difficult skills for the respondent. This is because 1) writing as productive skills; not everyone is skilled in writing, 2) writing does not only require language skills but several other skills 3) writing is a specific skill that must be supported by one's internal knowledge. A person's internal knowledge is generally obtained from reading results. In other words writing skills are closely related to reading skills. Reading reproduction is manifested in writing ability.

This study found a number of psychological barriers so that a non-native speaker of English felt constrained in writing. These constraints can be in the form of: i) Lack of motivation, ii) Not well trained, iii) Fear of being criticized, iv) Worrying wrong, and v) Not being able to process ideas into written language. If these five factors are traced, the hardest

factor is in the first point, and success can be achieved if a learner has been able to overcome the last point in reverse which is able to process ideas into written language.

Table 2. Psychological Obstacles in Writing

No	Psychological Obstacles	Percentage
1	Lack of motivation	11%
2	Not well trained	26%
3	Fear of being criticized	24%
4	feel worried when doing wrong	21%
5	Unable to process ideas into written language	18%

In principle, writing is a language activity to move ideas in mind and pour in written language. But in reality, this is not easy, technically or anything else. There are several things related to aspects of difficulty in writing skills, namely content, form, vocabulary, grammar, language use/style, and mechanics. Based on the data, student complaints in writing are formulated in Table 3 as follows

Tabel 3. Level of Constrain

No	Aspects	Level of Constrain	Remarks
1	Content	Ability to express ideas in easy-to-understand written language (cohere and coherence)	26%
2	Form	Text types and text organization	23%
3	Grammar	Grammatical and syntax (structure, subject-verb agreement, tenses, word, etc.)	21%
4	Language Use/Style	Words choices and style of expression	18%
5	Mechanics	Punctuation, spelling, and numbering (writing organization)	12%

Characteristics of Learner Writing for Non-Native Speakers of English include;

1. Learners have difficulty expressing things in English because they interfere by ways of thinking according to the language concepts that he uses every day
2. English has a language structure that is very different from the structure of its mother tongue - that is Indonesian
3. Non-native speakers of English are generally embarrassed and hesitant to write their ideas in English, they are afraid of being wrong.
4. They have very limited opportunities to write in English

5. They are generally easier to understand English conversations than writing

Therefore, it is suggested that non-speakers of English language learners to

1. Read more English-language writings. Choosing readings can be in the form of scientific articles, news and or literary fiction.
2. Participating in the creative writing course with the English Specific Purposes (ESP) method
3. To improve the practice of writing it is recommended to increase the practice, including utilizing the Facebook Group to join other learners with the same needs

Media of Learning Writing in ESP Context

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a specific approach in the teaching and use of English for specific fields and studies that are in accordance with the needs of the field of science and the profession of English language users. The fields of science and professions are such as English for Economics, Business, Law, Medicine, Mechanical Engineering, or maritime, and so on. Robinson (1990: 5) further states that (here ESP), the purpose of which is there is no doubt." The use of Facebook media is only a strategy for creating alternatives and is likely effective for learners.



Figure 2 Concepts of English for Specific Purposes

Thus, ESP has approaches and assumptions that are different from General English (GE) for example. The aim of ESP is for students to be able to master English in the fields they study. For example, Pharmacy students, they must understand English for pharmacy, or if they are Engineering students, they must know English for Engineering, or if they work in hospitality, then they must master hospitality English, if they are maritime students, then they

must master Maritime English. This is the reason that ESP has carried out matches to the needs of learners.

ESP is generally used in teaching foreign languages for certain uses in certain fields of science and professions. This goal is generally understood as a strategy to further enhance the role of English as a communication tool both oral and written. Therefore, ESP should be seen as an approach, concept, and method that are indeed different from General English. ESP is an English language teaching approach that has different approaches, perceptions, designs, materials, evaluations, and objectives. ESP material refers to student needs (students' needs) and where English will be used. Similar things are also expressed by Donough about the definition and concept of ESP. He argues that ESP courses are those where the syllabus and materials are important (Donough, 1984: 3). The essence of ESP can be seen in the figure below:

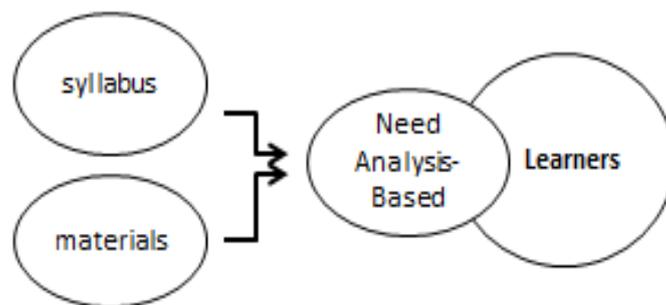


Figure 3. The Essence of English for Specific Purposes

Regarding the analysis of needs so that the substance of ESP really meets the needs of learners, then there are three things that must not be forgotten in conducting a needs analysis, namely a) instructors, b) learners, and c) stakeholders. Why all three must be a concern because in the end the instructor will lead learners to use language as needed by stakeholders.

The following figure shows the division and direction of ESP learning based on learner needs.

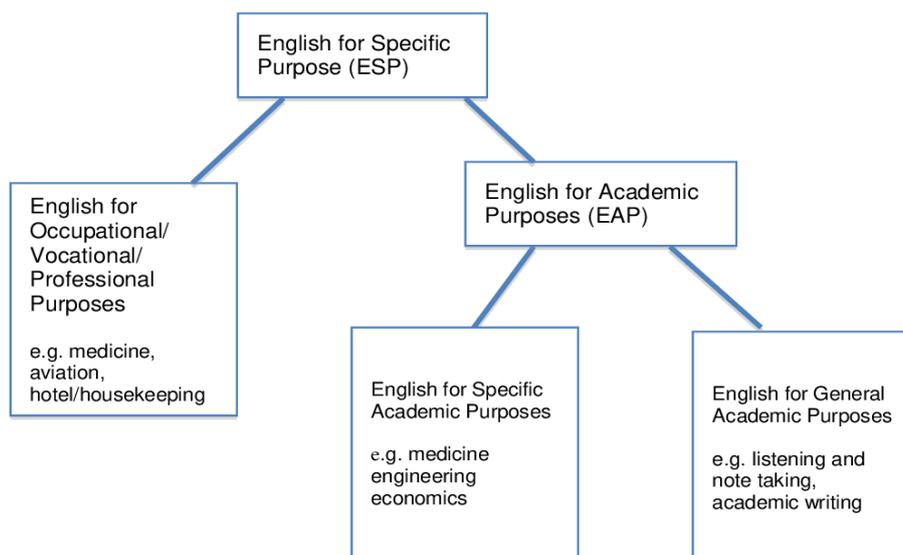


Figure 4 The Features of English for Specific Purposes

Based on the figure above, Robinson (1991: 2-3) further states that there are three main features of ESP that distinguish it from General English (GE) or English a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Mother Tongue (EMT). These three characteristics are 1) ESP is goal-oriented learning. In this context, learners learn English not for reasons of wanting to know the language as the language and culture contained in it, but ESP learning, learners are more because they have specific goals, specific and specific in academic and professional fields with one another, 2) Substance ESP is designed and developed based on the concept of need analysis. The concept of needs analysis aims to specialize and link and bring together what students need in both the academic and professional fields, and 3) ESP is more aimed at adult learners than children or adolescents. This is logical because ESP is generally taught at the middle and high academic levels.

By understanding the concept, the role of the teacher is very decisive in designing learning models, methods, and strategies and utilizing media that can improve learning effectiveness. A teacher must not hesitate to do various experiments. She/he must be creative, and understand the needs and constraints faced by learners.

Regarding the explanation above, the need for fun learning media in line with what is easy to use for learners is Facebook. In Facebook, students can enjoy written communication freely by sharing their ideas, via Facebook status or note. They also can comment to other's posting, and or share link, and video as well. However even so, she just tends to see the use of Facebook in general and focusing on the general language learning (Hayashi, 2011; Razali & Khatimah, 2013).

Results

Based on the data, 69% of respondents stated that writing became skills was difficult between other skills. There are five Psychological Obstacles in Writing for respondents, and 'Not well trained' comes to the high obstacle (26%) followed by 'Fear of being criticized' (24%), 'feel worried when doing wrong' (21%), 'Unable to process ideas into written language' (18%), and 'Lack of motivation' (11%). Regarded to respondent's writing performance, the constrain factor experienced by respondent included 5 aspects: content (26%), form (23%), grammar (21%), language use/style (18%) and mechanics (12%).

For the benefit of good teaching, ESP uses the methodology and activities that underlie the discipline it serves; ESP focuses on language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres that are appropriate to this activity. ESP realizes the methodology and activities in accordance with the fields of study that are targeted or studied and taught. This means that the methods and activities carried out in classroom learning must be in accordance with the fields of science, work, and profession that reflect the variety and diversity of the essence of ESP itself.

As a creative and dynamic approach the focus of ESP is typical language usage (grammar, lexis, register) as mentioned above, skills, discourse, genres that are in accordance with activity. In this case the scope of language in ESP at the level, grammar, lexical and register in certain cases is different from General English.

In fact, many students learn vocabulary and try to combine several words to make the right sentence. It is amazed, the number of words that some of the learners know, but they cannot make the correct sentence. The reason is because they do not learn sentence. When children learn languages, they learn shared words and phrases. Likewise, the must learn and learn expressions.

The results of this study reveal that it is important to understand how one acquires a foreign language, especially English. To understand how a person learns, the instructor must first identify the nature of teaching and learning before even trying to design effective teaching. As technology and social media, including Facebook, redefine our classrooms, teachers need to understand and adapt to various pedagogies to expand the classroom environment. Thus, the teacher must design teaching that meets the needs of their students.

Here are some specific implications of using social media in English classes: 1) Facebook reduces stress on teachers because the environment is friendly, conducive to learning

and student-centered. 2) A facilitator, allowing him to pay more attention to the weakest students; 3) Facebook reduces interference if there is no change or teacher (Faryadi, 2017).

Conclusion

Research relating to Facebook Group as Media of Learning Writing reveals several things 1) Facebook can be used for writing skills especially for non-native speakers of English, 2) The strength of Facebook can help teach writing in ESP context outside the classroom, 3) A person the teacher must not hesitate to do various experiments. He must be creative and understand the needs and constraints faced by learners, 4). ESP must be designed and prepared to meet the needs of goal oriented learners. To overcome the obstacles in writing, what must be done is that one must motivate himself, be confident, and get used to writing so that the constraint factor is often experienced by the respondent's understanding of content aspects, mastering the form, avoiding grammar mistakes, accustomed to using his own style and understanding about mechanics which applies in English.

Pedagogical Implication

The result of the research shows that Facebook Groups can foster learners' self-confidence to interact and respond spontaneously in English, which may not be experienced in conventional classes.

Finally, it can be concluded that ESP method is used to facilitate the teaching and learning of a foreign language for a clearly utilitarian purpose of which there is no doubt of it. The implications of this study offer an alternative teaching English, especially writing through Facebook Group in ESP context.

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**Sex-Disaggregated Inventory of Sexist-Oriented and Other Types of Lexical Errors
among First Year BSE English Students**

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Abstract

This study aligns to the field of Lexical Semantics that employ Error Analysis (EA) approach. It is a descriptive study that employed sex-disaggregated data to analyze the formal and semantic lexical errors, as well as the sexist-oriented lexical errors of sixty (60) First Year students of Pangasinan State University-Lingayen Campus, enrolled in the program Bachelor of Secondary Education, major in English (BSE English). Identifying the research population considered proportional sex distribution.

The study also aimed to clarify potential factors associated to students' susceptibility to commit lexical errors by correlating a list of variables based on the students' language-learning characteristics. Consequent to its objectives, the study generated a sex-disaggregated inventory of the lexical errors of ESL college learners. The inventory of errors is theoretically restricted by this study's arbitrary classification of lexical error types into formal lexical errors and semantic lexical errors, with various subtypes of errors registered under these general categories that were sourced from various taxonomies of lexical errors. The study also poses theoretical contribution with its inclusion of an additional type of lexical error, i.e. sexist oriented lexical errors (SOLEs). The study was carried out with a gender lens since all the research objectives are permeated by an aim to compare the accounts of the female and male

participants. Furthermore, the study used theory-informed and content-validated questionnaires to collect pertinent data.

Findings revealed that the female students are highly exposed to various types of authentic materials in English, but with slightly higher opportunity of exposure to “audio-visual materials and online publications”. On the other hand, the male students are also highly exposed to various types of authentic materials in English, but with slightly higher opportunity of exposure to “audio materials”. The female and male students manifest similar patterns of preference for all the lexical inferencing strategies (LISs) that range from “moderate” to “high”, wherein “Meaning-focused strategy” is dominantly preferred, while “evaluating strategy” is least preferred. Moreover, the female and the male students have parallel accounts in terms of their preference for all the lexical processing strategies (LPSs) range from “low”, “moderate”, and “high”. “Non-human resource strategy” is dominantly preferred, while “avoidance strategy” is least preferred. Furthermore, most of the female and the male students imbibe an “active vocabulary dominant (AVD)” orientation. Likewise, both the female and male students are highly susceptible to commit certain types of “formal lexical errors” and “semantic lexical errors”. The two sexes exhibited exactly the same patterns of sexist-oriented lexical errors, which are actually drawn from the pool of formal lexical errors. The sex of the students does not significantly differentiate their rate of susceptibility to commit sexist-oriented lexical errors.

In almost all occurrences, the susceptibility of both female and male students to commit sexist-oriented lexical errors, formal lexical errors, or semantic lexical errors is not related to their exposure to any type of authentic material in English, or to their preferential use any lexical inferencing strategy and lexical processing strategy, or their vocabulary orientation based on their active-passive vocabulary index. This is only intercepted by some isolated occurrences such as their preferential use of “avoidance strategy” and “human resource strategy”, which is significantly associated to their susceptibility to commit “inflectional error-noun” (a type of formal lexical error). Likewise, their preferential use of “avoidance strategy” is significantly associated to their susceptibility to commit “formal misinformation” (a type of formal lexical error). Likewise, their preferential use of “human resource strategy” is significantly associated to their susceptibility to commit “collocation errors” (a type of semantic lexical error).

On the merits of the research’s findings and conclusion that were further signified to existing literature and studies in the field of Lexical Semantics, several recommendations are

offered to call the attention and initiative of ESL teachers, school agents, and even Gender and Development (GAD) advocates to reinforce their strategic interventions in order to assist students in their optimal development of lexical competence that should manifest in the alleviation of their lexical errors and their sexist tendencies manifest in their written and oral discourse production.

Keywords: *sex-disaggregated, sexist-oriented, lexical errors, formal errors, semantic errors, error analysis*

Introduction

Folse (2004), pointed out that having poor vocabulary significantly results to constraints in communication. He explained that “one can get by without grammar but one cannot get by without vocabulary” (Folse, 2004). Thus, it is suggested that communication problems may be overcome by working systematically to increase lexical competence as a catalyst to overall communicative competence (Caro & Mendinueta, 2017).

Just for a brief clarification in the use of terms, “lexical skill” is used synonymously and interchangeably with “vocabulary skill” by many language scholars (Schmitt, 1995). However, some scholars try to distinguish the two terms by saying that vocabulary competence is concerned with the mere acquisition of or familiarity with words. On the contrary, lexis is not only associated with words per se, but expands to include other layers of lexical knowledge, in which vocabulary is just one of the components. Lexis comprises a system of word units, which relates to other units creating a network of meanings (Nation, 2001). Thus, lexical competence has to do with one’s ability to choose appropriate words in their right contextual usage, more than merely having an inventory of familiar words at hand. In relation to this, lexical skills refer to a specialized set of skills that contribute to the achievement of lexical competence. Concern over this type of skills is where this study is anchored. As prior mentioned, vocabulary skills lie within the larger scope of lexical skills which also includes knowledge of correct word structures as they transform morphologically and orthographically, as well as the appropriate choice of words to use as influenced by both linguistic and non-linguistic contexts. In this study, the correct choice of words based on non-linguistic contexts draws from the principles of gender-fair language, thereby significantly lending this research a “gender lens”.

In addition to the above, scholars conceived that a rich vocabulary makes the skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing easier to perform, as these contribute to effective and successful communication (Alqahtani, 2015; Nation 1994). But this injunction can only be shallow if the importance of vocabulary skills is not viewed from the larger context of lexical competence, which is the larger scheme and to which vocabulary skills contribute to its maximized application. Thus, it is lexical instruction that should figure prominently in EFL / ESL teaching contexts so that learners are not plainly taught of vocabulary items that are devoid of locus (Thornbury, 2002). Vocabulary skills without lexical skills is like handling a mechanical tool to someone but not teaching how to use it properly.

The conceptualization of the framework of this study was anchored on lexical skills takes its impetus from this researcher's own observations of various written corpora of students. This researcher has been teaching English language courses to college students for several years now, and was made to handle courses where it is inevitable to encounter and assess students' written compositions, whether these may be in the form of essay tests, theme compositions, literary compositions or even business correspondence compositions. While a variety of linguistic and non-linguistic error types are notable from these student-generated corpora, some of the more prominent ones relate to lexical errors.

Moreover, to some extent, the lexical errors committed do not only qualify as simple linguistic errors but point out to some lack of familiarity with the principles of gender-fair language. Notably, this has been observed in the case of both female and male students. Hence, the observation of these lexical errors became a standpoint in which the researcher wished to intersect the learning objectives of English courses to the University's larger Gender and Development (GAD) agenda, since Pangasinan State University has a firmly institutionalized GAD unit, concentrated to promote gender-fair principles (PSU Echoes, 2019).

Anchored on the above considerations, this study is intended to promote greater emphasis on the development of lexical competence among the University students, and where this academic project may also be an adjacent venue to cascade the GAD agenda into the curriculum of English language courses. Since it is assumed that adequate emphasis on lexical competence is not currently solidly established in the curriculum, it may be presumptuous to measure the students' lexical competence if the latter is not anchored on the list of competencies for English courses. So instead of taking this route, an error analysis (EA) type of research is herein and by this means, the researcher was able to show the existence of a specific gap or a problem noted from the overall English proficiency of students. This study

aims to give evidence of skill deficiencies that can be the basis for the curriculum planners of English courses, as well as the GAD agents of the University, to cooperatively work on giving importance to lexical competence. These evidence required to raise such an awareness are the lexical errors manifest in student-generated corpora.

In relation to the aforementioned objective to be pursued by this study, several language scholars have already pointed out that, indeed, lexical errors are the most frequently occurring category of errors in written English (Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006; Grauberg, 1971). It was also unfortunately noted that while the bulk of existing language researches seem to credit the importance of vocabulary in ESL writing, studies do not seem to navigate further into the larger scheme of lexical competence, and that there has been relatively little research into the lexical errors. Despite the frequency and seriousness of lexical errors, they remained under-researched (Astika 1993; Ellis, R 1994; Engber 1995). But this type of errors significantly affects the quality of academic writing and that native speakers of English actually consider them the most irritating (Santos 1988). One of the reasons pointed out as to why lexical competence has not been very much emphasized is because of a general attitude among ESL teachers to disregard such errors even as they are constantly observed in students in favor of dealing with grammatical and other types of errors which are the ones more clearly emphasized in the contents of ESL courses. Carter (1998) explains this vividly:

“... ‘mistakes’ in lexical selection may be less generously tolerated outside classrooms than mistakes in syntax. This is probably because lexical selection consists mainly of content words, which convey the intended message. When inappropriate lexical choices are made (lexical errors), this can lead directly to misunderstanding of the message, or at least to an increase in the burden of interpreting the text. Since lexical errors are potentially disruptive, they deserve attention (Carter, 1998).

For some of the few studies on lexical errors, their research objectives also focused on determining possible factors that explain ESL learners’ susceptibility to commit such errors (Swan,1997; Laufer (1997). Some of the hypothesized factors include “L1-L2 interference” (Swan,1997; Laufer (1997). Moreover, it is also attributed to the cognitive process of language learning and language use (Corder,1992). Since this is a trend of query adopted by lexical EA

studies in the past, this study takes up to continue such tradition with its own hypothetical constructs. A new set of variables, besides those that are invoked in previous studies, are hypothesized as factors to explain learners' susceptibility to commit certain types of lexical errors, and even sexist-oriented lexical errors for that matter. This aspect is actually one of the unique features of this study as it tries to theoretically intersect the concerns of lexical competence with the principles of gender-fair language which has never been done before, whether in existing related literature or studies on lexical competence or lexical errors.

Notable, scholarly literature sets the typology of lexical errors only under two major classifications, i.e. "formal lexical errors and semantic lexical errors" (Hemchua & Schmitt, 2006). This theoretical classification only ties lexical errors to a linguistic context and undermines the possibility that lexical errors may also be conditioned by non-linguistic factors such as gender bias. This is the reason that even sexist-oriented lexical errors were, in fact, absorbed as mere superficial manifestations of either formal errors or semantic errors. In reality, sexist-oriented lexical errors must have its own domain and not merely reduced mere linguistically conditioned errors because the commission of such errors transcend linguistic factors. This aspect of the study advanced some possible theory-construction or its own modest contribution to currently existing theories on lexical competence and lexical errors.

In synthesis to the above considerations, this study was hereby advanced to contribute to one of the least explored researchable areas in the field of ESL linguistics and communication studies. It is a modest gesture of this researcher to perpetuate the tradition of lexical error analysis, and hopefully to re-ignite interest in this field for the sake of prospective researchers in this University and in other institutions. The merits of this study also addressed the possibility of instating the significance of lexical competence in the curriculum of English language courses in the University, and to forge the closer cooperation between the University's Gender and Development agents and the English language academicians.

Methodology

Study Design

On the perspective of this study's classification as a language research, it registers in the tradition of linguistic studies that employ Error Analysis (EA) approach. As there may be varying methods to conduct EA, this study used the method of Harris (1994, in Rumfaan, 2016) that employs "recognition" as a technique in conducting EA, as an alternative to EA mechanics usually applied to assess written corpus. The EA instrument of this study enabled the

identification of students' lexical errors using test types such as sentence completion and sentence correction.

In terms of methodology, this study adopted a descriptive design. Descriptive research is common to social researches (Bhat, 2018), since many of these studies aim to present the results of surveys or describe the profile of a target population in terms of some selected categories (socio-demographic or otherwise). This study took up "lexical errors" as the phenomenon of interest. Moreover, the phenomenon was explored with reference to the opposite sexes' peculiar encounter of and susceptibility to the different types of lexical errors. The major output of this study was a sex-disaggregated inventory of lexical errors committed by ESL learners, which entails a survey and a description of lexical errors using a specialized taxonomy.

In terms of this study's approach to data analysis, it employed both qualitative and quantitative modes of analysis. Other objectives of this study that presupposed the use of quantitative analysis was the use of inferential statistics, which entailed both analysis of variance and correlation. In this study, these analytical tools will be instrumental to determine if there is a significant variance in the experience and orientations of female and male ESL learners when it comes to committing lexical errors. Such analysis also determined the closeness of certain learner traits when it came to the rate of their susceptibility to commit certain error types. All these paved for a comprehensive description of the data that will be surveyed.

Respondents of the Study

The target respondents of this study were drawn from the raw population of first year college students actively enrolled in the program, Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSE), major in English at Pangasinan State University - Lingayen Campus, during the academic year 2019-2020. Due to the complexity of this study's data-gathering instrument which entailed enormous effort to conduct the error analysis on the test results for every respondent, the research population was predetermined for a total of sixty (60) participants. The ideal composition of the target population comprised of 30 female students and 30 male students from two classes of first year BSE English students. By initially classifying the raw population into their sex categories, it was ensured that the ideal sex population was satisfied

Data Collection Procedure

Upon the final approval of the research proposal by the thesis committee, the intent to conduct this study was then cascaded to the concerned officials in the institutional research locale. This was done via a formal communication and the actual procedures were explained clearly to the concerned authorities and teachers to ensure that the students' regular school activities were disrupted when the instruments were administered.

The **ESL Lexical Learning Characteristics Profiler (ESL-LLCP)** was the first instrument that was personally administered by the researcher. Weighing the difficulty level of the ESL-LLCP, the running time to respond to this instrument was estimated at 40 minutes. All filled-out forms were collected before dismissing the group. A spreadsheet was used to easily collate the data and produce the summary of the students' responses in the ESL-LLCP.

On a separate schedule and setting, the **Lexical Error Elicitor Test (LE-ET)** was administered to the same set of respondents who were called again to meet as an entire group to take the test in a common classroom venue. Weighing the difficulty level of the ESL-LLCP, the running time to respond to this instrument was estimated at 90 minutes or 1.5 hours (maximum). The researcher evaluated the students' answer in the test using the rubric "Taxonomy of Lexical Errors". A spreadsheet was used to collate the data and produce the inventory of lexical errors.

Results and Discussion

Sex-Disaggregated Profile of BSE English Students along Lexical Learning Characteristics

1. Students' Exposure to Authentic Materials in English

Female students. Generally, the female students' exposure to authentic materials in English (AERMs) is High (AWM: 3.87), indicating a good volume of AERM resources in their environment, which are also available for the students to access. Likewise, the female students' have "high" exposure to the different types of AME classified into: (a) reading materials in print medium (AWM: 3.71), (b) audio materials (AWM: 3.88), and (c) audio-visual materials and online publications (AWM: 4.03). However, the female students are most likely to access "audio-visual and online publications", particularly "written articles posted on the internet". The AERM resources accessed the least compared to the others are the "reading materials in print medium".

Male students. Generally, the female students' exposure to AERMs is High (AWM: 3.81), indicating a good volume of AERM resources in their environment, which are also available for the students to access. Likewise, the male students' have "high" exposure to the different types of AERM classified into: (a) reading materials in print medium (AWM: 3.50), (b) audio materials (AWM: 4.07), and (c) audio-visual materials and online publications (AWM: 3.81). However, the male students are most likely to access "audio materials", particularly "music". The AERM resources accessed the least compared to the others are the "reading materials in print medium".

2. Preferred Lexical Inferencing Strategy

Female students. All the female students manifested varying levels of preference for all the lexical inferencing strategies (LISs), ranging from "moderate" to "high". Two of the strategies are "highly" preferred namely (a) form-focused strategy (AWM: 3.66) and (b) meaning-focused strategy. Between these, the latter is dominantly preferred. The other LISs are preferred only at a "moderate level", such as the (a) evaluating strategy (AWM:3.14) and (b) monitoring strategy (AWM:2.96). On the extreme opposites of the students' preferential scale, the "monitoring strategies" is least preferred over the others. Moreover, their practices that indicate their use of "meaning-focused strategy" are as follows:

- *I check the meaning of the word by analyzing its definition as stated in the dictionary (WM: 4.48, High)*
- *I check the meaning of the word by researching about its synonyms or even its antonyms (WM: 4.30, High)*
- *I research about the classification of the unfamiliar word (e.g. is it a food? An animal? A place? Or a type of profession? etc.) because this gives me a better grasp of the word's meaning (3.65, High).*
- *I paraphrase the sentence until the meaning becomes clearer and so with the unfamiliar word in that sentence (3.52, High).*

Male students. All the male students manifested varying levels of preference for all the lexical inferencing strategies (LISs), ranging from "moderate" to "high". Two of the strategies are "highly" preferred, namely: (a) form-focused strategy (AWM: 3.55) and (b) meaning-focused strategy (AWM: 3.85). Between these, the latter is dominantly preferred. The other LISs are also preferred but only at a "moderate level", such as the (a) evaluating strategy

(AWM:3.33) and (b) monitoring strategy (AWM:3.20). On the extreme opposites of the students' preferential scale, the "monitoring strategies" is least preferred over the others. Further, their practices that indicate their use of "meaning-focused strategy" are as follows:

- *I check the meaning of the word by analyzing its definition as stated in the dictionary (WM: 4.48, High);*
- *I check the meaning of the word by researching about its synonyms or even its antonyms (WM: 4.20, High);*
- *I research about the classification of the unfamiliar word (e.g. is it a food? An animal? A place? Or a type of profession? etc.) because this gives me a better grasp of the word's meaning (WM: 3.48, Moderate);*
- *I paraphrase the sentence until the meaning becomes clearer and so with the unfamiliar word in that sentence (WM: 3.24, Moderate)*

3. Preferred Lexical Processing Strategy

Female students. All the female students manifested varying levels of preference for all the strategies, ranging from "low", "moderate", and "high". Two of the strategies are "moderately" preferred, namely: (a) human resource strategy (AWM: 3.00) and (b) non-human resource strategy (AWM: 3.83). Between these, the latter is dominantly preferred. "Avoidance strategy" (AWM: 2.37) is preferred at a "low level". Further, their more frequent practices that indicate use of "non-human resource strategy" are as follows:

- *I refer to the dictionary or thesaurus (WM: 4.65, Very High);*
- *I analyze the structure of the word and discover its possible relations to other words that I already know (WM: 3.57, High)*
- *I use context-clue to predict the meaning of the word (WM: 3.57, High)*

Male students. All the female students manifested varying levels of preference for all the strategies, ranging from "low" to "moderate". One of the strategies is "highly" preferred namely non-human resource strategy (AWM: 3.54). "Avoidance strategy" (AWM: 2.40) is preferred at a "low level". Further, their more frequent practices that indicate use of "non-human resource strategy" are as follows:

- *I refer to the dictionary or thesaurus (WM: 4.64, Very High);*

4. Active-Passive Vocabulary Index

Female students. Majority (20 or 67%) of the female students imbibe an “active vocabulary dominant (AVD)” orientation, and the remainder (10 or 33%) have “passive vocabulary dominant (PVD)” orientation. The female students with AVD orientation have fairly competent productive vocabulary, which enables them to easily retrieve from their word stock to actively use lexical items in different types of language productions (oral and written discourse). Those with PVD orientation also fare well in their lexical competence but only to the extent of their comprehension of texts and oral discourses encountered from listening. The major highlight of the students’ AVD orientation is:

- *All English words that I am familiar of their meaning, I have been using them in my written compositions*

Male students. Majority (27 or 90%) of the female students imbibe an “active vocabulary dominant (AVD)” orientation, and the remainder (3 or 10%) have “passive vocabulary dominant (PVD)” orientation. The major highlight of the students’ AVD orientation is:

- *All English words that I am familiar of their meaning, I have been using them in my written compositions*

Sex-disaggregated Data on the Extent of Lexical Errors Committed by the BSE

English Students

Female students. Most female students have “high” level of susceptibility to commit formal lexical errors or FLE (53.33%), and the same “high” level of susceptibility to commit semantic lexical errors or SLE (48.67%). Moreover, there is slightly a greater number of students with high susceptibility to commit FLEs than SLEs, which may hypothetically indicate that female students are relatively more challenged to deal with formal lexical errors than with semantic lexical errors.

In terms of “formal lexical errors”, findings reveal that all the female students are susceptible to commit all the twelve (12) types of FLEs. However, the levels of their susceptibility to commit each type of formal lexical error typically vary from high, average and low levels. Under the FLE type “Inflectional Error-Verb”, most of the female students (18 or 60%) manifested “high” level of error susceptibility. This is also the case in FLE error types

such as “Inflectional Error-Noun” (24 or 80%), “Inflectional Error-Possessive” (23 or 76.67%), “Derivational Error” (18 or 60%), “Inaccurate Lexical Bundling” (30 or 100%), “Omission” (26 or 86.67%), and “Infusion” (30 or 100%). The aforementioned series of FLEs indicate lexical error types that most of the students commit in high frequencies. This means that these are the most difficult types of FLEs that most female students very challenging to deal with. Likewise, the FLEs “Inaccurate Lexical Bundling” and “Infusion” stand out because these are types of lexical errors committed in maximum level by all the female students (100%).

In contrast to the above findings, that there are FLE types where most, or at least a larger number of the female students erred the least, to wit: “Inflectional Error-Adjective” (12 or 40%), “Formal Distortion” (17 or 56.67%), “Phonemic Confusion” (15 or 50%), and “Formal Misinformation / Interlingual Error” (25 or 83.33%). These are the series of FLE types obtaining the minimum evidence of errors as accounted for by the larger fraction of the female students, which may indicate that these lexical errors are not as problematic as the previous series reported.

In the case of “semantic lexical errors”, three of the SLE types stand out for being committed at maximum level by majority of the female students, to wit: “Inappropriate Synonym Choice” (19 or 63.33%), “Confusion of Sense Relation-Hyponym Preference” (25 or 83.33%), and “Collocation Error” (16 or 53.33%). Across these three SLE types, “Confusion of Sense Relation-Hyponym Preference” stands out with the most number of female students committing this error.

Contrary to the above findings, there is one (1) SLE type that most of the female students commit the least. This is the case of “miscollocation”, which was noted to have minimum traces of error as accounted by majority of the female students (20 or 66.67%).

Male students. All the male students are susceptible to commit lexical errors under its general categories of “formal lexical errors” and “semantic lexical errors”. Most male students have “high” level of susceptibility to commit FLE across its different types (51.39%), and also a “high” level of susceptibility to commit SLE across its different types (46.67). Further, there is slightly a greater number of students with high susceptibility to commit FLEs than SLEs, which may hypothetically indicate that male students are relatively more challenged to deal with formal lexical errors than with semantic lexical errors.

In terms of “formal lexical errors”, findings reveal that all the male students are susceptible to commit all the twelve (12) types of FLEs. Under the FLE type “Inflectional Error-Verb”, most of the female students (18 or 60%) manifested “high” level of error

susceptibility. This is also the case in FLE error types such as “Inflectional Error-Noun” (23 or 76.67%), “Inflectional Error-Possessive” (22 or 73.33%), “Derivational Error” (19 or 63.33%), “Inaccurate Lexical Bundling” (26 or 86.67%), “Omission” (30 or 100%), and “Infusion” (29 or 96.67%). The aforementioned series of FLEs indicate lexical error types that most of the students commit in high frequencies. This means that these are the most difficult types of FLEs that most male students find very challenging to deal with. Likewise, the FLEs “Omission” and “Infusion” stand out because these are types of lexical errors committed in maximum level by the greater number of male students (i.e. 100% and 96.67%, respectively).

In the case of “semantic lexical errors”, three of the SLE types stand out for being committed at maximum level by majority of the male students. These SLEs include: “Inappropriate Synonym Choice” (16 or 53.33%), “Confusion of Sense Relation-Hyponym Preference” (25 or 83.33%), and “Collocation Error” (18 or 60%). Across these three SLE types, “Confusion of Sense Relation-Hyponym Preference” stands out with the most number of male students committing this error.

Contrary to the above findings, there is one (1) SLE type that half of the male students (15 or 50%) commit only at a “moderate” level. This is the case of “CSR-hyponym preference”.

Sex-disaggregated Data on the Sexist-Oriented Lexical Errors of BSE English Students

Female students. The female students’ sexist-oriented lexical errors are manifest in their (a) formal lexical errors, specifically the “derivational error” type, and in their (b) semantic lexical errors, specifically in the types: “CSR-hyponym preference” and “collocation errors. As to their other types of lexical errors, no manifestation of sexist use of terms or language are noted. It is also notable that all the female students, or at least, most of them, committed the aforementioned list of lexical errors that reflect sexist use of language.

There is only one type of FLE committed by the female students adjacently characterized as sex-oriented lexical error. This is the case of “derivational error”, wherein all the female students’ (30 or 100%) responses that manifest derivational error were analyzed to likewise contain traces of SOLE. This means that the students’ derivational errors likewise induced them to use sexist term.

Further, the sexist-oriented lexical errors are not only found under FLE types but also among their SLEs. All the female students’ (30 or 100%) CSR-Hyponym Preference errors are also indicative of SOLE. Moreover, almost all the female students’ (29 or 97%) collocation

errors contain traces of SOLE. These findings, thereby, indicate that the commission of errors in these two SLE types may also induce sexist oriented errors.

Male students. The male students' sexist-oriented lexical errors are manifest in their (a) formal lexical errors, specifically the "derivational error" type, and in their (b) semantic lexical errors, specifically in the types: "CSR-hyponym preference" and "collocation errors. As to their other types of lexical errors, no manifestation of sexist use of terms or language are noted. It is also notable that all the female students, or at least, most of them, committed the aforementioned list of lexical errors that reflect sexist use of language.

There is only one type of FLE committed by the male students adjacently characterized as sex-oriented lexical error. This is the case of "derivational error", wherein majority of the male students' (16 or 53.33%) responses that manifest derivational error were analyzed to likewise contain traces of SOLE. This means that the students' derivational errors likewise induced them to use sexist term.

Further, the sexist-oriented lexical errors are not only found under FLE types but also among their SLEs. All the male students' (30 or 100%) CSR-Hyponym Preference errors and collocation errors are indicative of SOLE. These findings, thereby, indicate that the commission of errors in these two SLE types may also induce sexist oriented errors.

Difference in the Lexical Errors of Female and Male BSE English Students

1. Difference in the female and male student's

sexist-oriented lexical errors

The female and male students' rates of susceptibility to commit sexist-oriented lexical errors along "derivational error" (0.7978), "CSR-hyponym preference" (0.9997), and "collocation error" (0.9967) are not significantly different. This is based on the results of the Mann-Whitney U test that uses 0.05 threshold of significance. Thus, the finding rejects of the hypothesis of the study. The finding implies that regardless of sex, the three aforementioned sexist-oriented lexical errors can be committed by students.

2. Difference in the female and male student's accounts of formal lexical errors and semantic lexical errors

The female and male students' rates of susceptibility to commit "Inflectional Error Adjective" ($p = .0118$), "Inaccurate Lexical Bundling" ($p=.0207$), and "Formal Misselection" ($p = .0040$) are significantly different. This is based on the results of the Mann-Whitney U test

that uses 0.05 threshold of significance. As to their rates of susceptibility to the rest of the lexical error types, there is no significant difference. Thus, the finding partly rejects of the hypothesis of the study, only in the extent that some variables were found to be significantly related.

On the further details of the above finding, it was noted that the female students have significantly committed more lexical errors than the male students along “Inflectional Error Adjective”, “Inaccurate Lexical Bundling”, and “Formal Misselection”. This further indicates a higher rate of susceptibility among the female students to commit such errors. As to the other types of lexical errors, susceptibility is fairly equal between female and male students. It is also notable that the three aforementioned lexical errors register as types of formal lexical errors. Hence, what significant differentiation of female and male susceptibility to lexical errors is associated with the FLE types but not in the SLE types.

Relationship between the Students’ Profile and their Susceptibility to Commit Lexical Errors

The following findings are generated from statistical correlation analysis using Non-Parametric Spearman Rho test. Computed p values were the basis to determine level of significance relative to this study’s established 0.05 threshold of significance. The Spearman Rho values were also accessed to determine positive and negative correlations.

1. The students’ profile variables and extent of their sexist-oriented lexical errors

Exposure to authentic materials in English. The extent of the students’ exposure to any of the three AERMs is “not significantly related” to the extent of their sexist-oriented derivational errors”. This is indicated by the p values for (a) Reading materials in print medium (p value: 0.981); (b) Audio materials (p value: 0.666), and (c) A-V materials and online publications (p value: 0.696). With all corresponding p values found to be greater than the established 0.05 threshold of significance, these findings summarily indicate that the students’ extent of exposure along the three AERMs is “not significantly related” to the extent of their sexist-oriented derivational errors.

Parallel to the above finding, the extent of the students’ exposure to any of the three AERMs is also “not significantly related” to the extent of their sexist-oriented lexical errors via “CSR-hyponym preference”. This is indicated by the p values for (a) Reading materials in

print medium (p value: 0.600); (b) Audio materials (p value: 0.079), and (c) A-V materials and online publications (p value: 0.852).

Likewise, the students' exposure to any of the three AERMs is "not significantly related" to the extent of their sexist-oriented collocation errors. This is indicated by the p values for (a) Reading materials in print medium (p value: 0.173); (b) Audio materials (p value: 0.246), and (c) A-V materials and online publications (p value: 0.280).

Preference for lexical inferencing strategies. The extent of the students' preference for any of the 4 LISs is "not significantly related" to the extent of their sexist-oriented derivational errors. This is indicated by the p values for (a) Form-focused strategy (p value: 0.791); (b) meaning-focused strategy (p value: 0.831), (c) evaluating strategy (p value: 0.758); and (d) monitoring strategy (p value: 0.178).

The extent of the students' preference for any of the 4 LISs is "not significantly related" to the extent of their sexist-oriented lexical errors via "CSR-hyponym preference". This is indicated by the p values for (a) Form-focused strategy (p value: 0.838); (b) meaning-focused strategy (p value: 0.070), (c) evaluating strategy (p value: 0.400); and (d) monitoring strategy (p value: 0.324).

The extent of the students' LIS preference is "not significantly related" to the extent of their sexist-oriented collocation errors. This is indicated by the p values for (a) Form-focused strategy (p value: 0.427); (b) meaning-focused strategy (p value: 0.403), (c) evaluating strategy (p value: 0.340); and (d) monitoring strategy (p value: 0.468).

Preference for lexical processing strategies. The extent of the students' preference for any of the 4 LPSs is "not significantly related" to the extent of their sexist-oriented derivational errors. This is indicated by the p values for: (a) avoidance strategy (p value: 0.534); (b) human resource strategy (p value: 0.835), and (c) non-human resource strategy (p value: 0.122).

The extent of the students' preference for any of the 4 LPSs is "not significantly related" to the extent of their sexist-oriented lexical errors via "CSR-hyponym preference". This is indicated by the p values for (a) avoidance strategy (p value: 0.805); (b) human resource strategy (p value: 0.552), and (c) non-human resource strategy (p value: 0.377).

The extent of the students' LPS preference is "not significantly related" to the extent of their sexist-oriented collocation errors. This is indicated by the p values for (a) avoidance strategy (p value: 0.847); (b) human resource strategy (p value: 0.123), and (c) non-human resource strategy (p value: 0.239).

Active-passive vocabulary index. The p values obtained for each type of SOLE range either higher or lower than the established 0.05 threshold of significance. The extent of the students'; sexist-oriented derivational errors (0.994) and CSR-hyponym preference (0.919) is "not significantly related" to their active-passive vocabulary index. On the contrary, their extent of sexist-oriented collocations (0.048) is the one that is significantly related. Moreover, the Spearman rho value (-0.256) corresponding to "collocation errors" further indicate an "inverse relationship" between the variables.

2. The students' profile variables and extent of their formal lexical and semantic lexical errors

The following findings are generated from statistical correlation analysis using Non-Parametric Spearman Rho test. Computed p values were the basis to determine level of significance relative to this study's established 0.05 threshold of significance. The Spearman Rho values were also accessed to determine positive and negative correlations.

Exposure to authentic materials in English. The p values obtained for each AERM type in relation to all FLE types are consistently higher than the established 0.05 threshold of significance. Summarily, therefore, these indicate that the extent of the students' exposure to any of these three AERMs is "not significantly related" to the extent of their lexical errors across all types of formal lexical errors. This means that there is no significant association between their access to any type of authentic material in English and their susceptibility to commit any one of the FLE types.

Preference for lexical inferencing strategies. The p values obtained for each LISs in relation to all FLE types are consistently higher than the established 0.05 threshold of significance. Summarily, therefore, these indicate that the extent of the students' preference for the different lexical inferencing strategies is "not significantly related" to the extent of their lexical errors across all types of formal lexical errors. This means that there is no significant association between their preferential use of any lexical inferencing strategy and their susceptibility to commit any one of the FLE types.

Preference for lexical processing strategies. The p values obtained for almost all LPSs in relation to all FLE types are consistently higher than the established 0.05 threshold of significance. Summarily, therefore, these indicate that in majority of the occurrences, the extent of the students' preference for the different lexical processing strategies is "not significantly

related” to the extent of their lexical errors across all types of formal lexical errors. Conversely, this goes with the exception of certain variables.

The students’ preferential use of “avoidance strategy (0.030)” and “human resource strategy (0.021)” is significantly associated to their susceptibility to commit “inflectional error-noun”. Moreover, the statistical findings also indicate a negative correlation (-0.289) between these variables, thereby implying their inverse relationship. Similarly, the preferential use of “avoidance strategy” is significantly associated to their susceptibility to commit “formal misinformation”, which is also known as “interlingual error” (0.012).

Active-passive vocabulary index. The p values obtained across the active-passive vocabulary indices of the students in relation to all FLE types are consistently higher than the established 0.05 threshold of significance. Summarily, therefore, these indicate that the extent of the students’ vocabulary orientation is “not significantly related” to the extent of their lexical errors across all types of formal lexical errors. This means that there is no significant association between the students’ vocabulary orientation and their susceptibility to commit any one of the FLE types.

3. The students’ profile variables and extent of their semantic lexical errors

The following findings are generated from statistical correlation analysis using Non-Parametric Spearman Rho test. Computed p values were the basis to determine level of significance relative to this study’s established 0.05 threshold of significance. The Spearman Rho values were also accessed to determine positive and negative correlations.

Exposure to authentic materials in English. The p values obtained for each AERM type in relation to all SLE types are consistently higher than the established 0.05 threshold of significance. Summarily, therefore, these indicate that the extent of the students’ exposure to any of these three AERMs is “not significantly related” to the extent of their lexical errors across all types of semantic lexical errors. This means that there is no significant association between their access to any type of authentic material in English and their susceptibility to commit any one of the SLE types.

Preference for lexical inferencing strategies. The p values obtained for each LISs in relation to all SLE types are consistently higher than the established 0.05 threshold of significance. Summarily, therefore, these indicate that the extent of the students’ preference for the different lexical inferencing strategies is “not significantly related” to the extent of their lexical errors across all types of semantic lexical errors. This means that there is no significant

association between their preferential use of any lexical inferencing strategy and their susceptibility to commit any one of the SLE types.

Preference for lexical processing strategies. The p values obtained for almost all the LPSs in relation to all SLE types are consistently higher than the established 0.05 threshold of significance. Summarily, therefore, these indicate that in majority of the occurrences, the extent of the students' preference for the different lexical processing strategies is "not significantly related" to the extent of their lexical errors across all types of semantic lexical errors. Conversely, this goes with the exception of certain variables.

The students' preferential use of "human resource strategy" is significantly associated to their susceptibility to commit "collocation" (0.010).

Active-passive vocabulary index. The p values obtained across the active-passive vocabulary indices of the students in relation to all FLE types are consistently higher than the established 0.05 threshold of significance. Summarily, therefore, these indicate that the extent of the students' vocabulary orientation is "not significantly related" to the extent of their lexical errors across all types of semantic lexical errors. This means that there is no significant association between the students' vocabulary orientation and their susceptibility to commit any one of the SLE types.

Conclusions

Based on the merits of the findings, the following conclusions are drawn:

1. The female students are highly exposed to various types of authentic materials in English, but with slightly higher opportunity of exposure to "audio-visual materials and online publications". On the other hand, the male students are also highly exposed to various types of authentic materials in English, but with slightly higher opportunity of exposure to "audio materials".

All the female students have varying levels of preference for all the lexical inferencing strategies (LISs), ranging from "moderate" to "high". "Meaning-focused strategy" is dominantly preferred, while "evaluating strategy" is least preferred. Exactly the same pattern applies to the male students.

All the female students have varying levels of preference for all the lexical processing strategies (LPSs), ranging from "low", "moderate", and "high". "Non-human resource strategy" is dominantly preferred, while "avoidance strategy" is least preferred. Exactly the same pattern applies to the male students.

2. Most of the female students imbibe an “active vocabulary dominant (AVD)” orientation. Same is true to the male students.

3. All the female students are highly susceptible to commit certain types of “formal lexical errors” and “semantic lexical errors”. The same is true to the male students.

4. The female students’ sexist-oriented lexical errors are certain types of formal lexical errors. Exactly the same types of lexical errors also characterize the sexist-oriented lexical errors of the male students.

5. The sex of the students does not significantly differentiate their rate of susceptibility to commit sexist-oriented lexical errors.

6. The susceptibility of both female and male students to commit sexist-oriented lexical errors is not related to their exposure to any type of authentic material in English, or to their preferential use any lexical inferencing strategy and lexical processing strategy, or their vocabulary orientation based on their active-passive vocabulary index.

The susceptibility of both female and male students to commit formal lexical errors is not related to their exposure to any type of authentic material in English, or to their preferential use any lexical inferencing strategy, or their vocabulary orientation based on their active-passive vocabulary index, or to their preferential use any lexical processing strategy. On the latter, their preferential use of “avoidance strategy” and “human resource strategy” is significantly associated to their susceptibility to commit “inflectional error-noun”. Likewise, their preferential use of “avoidance strategy” is significantly associated to their susceptibility to commit “formal misinformation”.

The susceptibility of both female and male students to commit semantic lexical errors are not related to their exposure to any type of authentic material in English, or to their preferential use any lexical inferencing strategy, or their vocabulary orientation based on their active-passive vocabulary index, or to their preferential use any lexical processing strategy. On the latter, their preferential use of “human resource strategy” is significantly associated to their susceptibility to commit “collocation errors”.

Recommendations

Based on the findings and conclusions of the study, the set of recommendations below are hereby offered.

1. On account of the findings that both female and male students are highly exposed to various types of authentic materials in English (AERMs), it was also noted that certain

AERMs are less accessed than others. Inasmuch as the various AERM types offer specialized linguistic forms that are all together beneficial to ESL learning, they should all be ideally accessed to the same degree. Strategic intervention from the initiative of teachers, school agents, family members and social members in the learning environment of learners are expected to assist in the optimal exposure of students in accessing varied types of AERMs.

On account of the findings along the female and male students' preference for the different lexical inferencing strategies (LISs) and lexical processing strategies (LPSs), there is a further need to reinforce students' awareness and appreciation for those LISs and LPSs, as well as the individual practices under each LIS / LPS, that were noted to be less preferred, and thereby less accessed. This shall be done in the context of optimizing the effects of all LISs and LPSs, that should be adopted integrally to help advance students' lexical competence.

That most of the female and male students were noted to imbibe "active vocabulary dominant (AVD)" orientation is outstanding and should be sustained as this is beneficial not only to their vocabulary learning and development, but also in their productive use of such vocabulary in their varied written and oral communication practices, in both academic and non-academic settings.

2. On account of the profuse evidence of the female and male students' susceptibility to both formal lexical and semantic lexical errors" and "semantic lexical errors, this should pose alarm to ESL teachers and even curriculum designers as these findings cue to them to reinforce vocabulary teaching or promote efficient vocabulary learning strategies among the students. The specific areas that highlight the students' lexical error susceptibility must all the more be the focus of instruction.

3. On account of the findings that female and male students commonly manifest sexist-oriented lexical errors, these must be treated as inputs for the awareness of ESL teachers as well as the schools' supervisory units for gender and development. Evidence of such errors may transcend mere issues of sociolinguistic proficiency but may also be indicative of subconsciously ingrained values of gender stereotyping among the students, which may be addressed using gender sensitivity intervention programs.

4. On the statistical finding that sex does not significantly differentiate students' rate of susceptibility to commit sexist-oriented lexical errors, subsequent parallel investigations are highly recommendable to solidify this claim or otherwise, prove it as contentious. The methodology, framework and tools used by this study to perform the analysis are launching points for further improvement by future researchers.

5. On account of the overwhelming consistency across the correlational findings which point out that students' exposure to authentic materials in English, their preferential use of lexical inferencing and lexical processing strategies, and their active-passive vocabulary indices are not significantly related to their susceptibility to commit lexical errors of varied types, these findings are not all together meritorious because they somehow indicate the irrelevance of such variables to the students' lexical learning. On this note, it is highly recommendable for ESL teachers and concerned school agents to reinforce the connection of these variables to lexical learning by ensuring that these variables assist in providing relevant language inputs to guide students in their lexical use and selection, and thereby alleviate their susceptibility to commit lexical errors.

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Code Switching Among Pre-Service ESL Students

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Abstract

This study identified the significant difference between the attitudes towards code-switching of male and female, the significant relationship between the students' grades in English and their attitudes in code-switching, the commonly used types of code switching by the students, and how does code switching affect inside and outside classroom interaction situations as perceived by students and professors. Results of the study revealed that the attitude of the male and the female respondents on code-switching is comparable and their grades in English do not affect their performance in speaking as far as code-switching is concerned. On the average, the male and the female respondents moderately agree on the use of code switching in the teaching-learning process. Moreover, it was found out that Intra-sentential code switching was predominantly used by the students. Generally, the students and the professors used this language choice to give emphasis, clarify understanding, fill an unknown word, ask questions, start a topic as a shift in situation arises, control behavior, express agreement, and show respect.

Keywords: *code switching, pre-service, ESL students*

Introduction

Today, code switching is widespread in almost all forms of discussions whether formal or informal such as meetings, seminars and dialogue with friends. As observed inside the classrooms, it is now also being used by some teachers and students despite being on guard of their school policies or advocacies that when inside the school premise, everyone has to speak in English. In the Philippine context, linguistics dug into the nature of code switching in English language teaching. They top the reasons why students as well as teachers do code switch even in a supposedly purely English speaking class. There is a sort of confusion on the use of switch codes. Some misinterpret code-switching as an incompetent use of the language. Others claim versatility, since a switch in code masters the use of two languages at the same time. How does this phenomenon come about? Code switching is apparently observed as the result of bilingualism or multilingualism in a speech community. As stressed by Edwards (1994) this condition is a powerful fact among speakers around the world, a circumstance arising, at the most basic level, from the demand to interact across speech communities. Through this, the world therefore today is multilingual brought about by the irresistible mixing or combination of some major social changes that lead to the increment of bilingual as claimed by Milroy and Mysken (1998).

According to Hermoso (2008) bilingualism is also being spurred on by colonization. Meaning, when a country colonizes another, the language of the former becomes the auxiliary language to the country being colonized and this result to bilingualism. Therefore, it is high time to examine the reasons why students choose to code switch in the Computer Science class in order to have a deeper understanding of this phenomenon and to learn that code switching is not a simple matter of competence or incompetence. Thus, this study attempted to explain what code switching is; why it is used in the language classroom and how it becomes useful in a class that is supposed to be taught in English. Since code switching is perhaps the central issue in bilingualism research as pointed out by Milroy and Mysken (1998), thus prompted the researchers to study on code switching and assess whether it is an effective communication strategy among bilinguals in the teaching-learning situation or in the delivery of instruction.

Statement of the Problem

This study aimed to describe the nature of code switching in a classroom where the medium of instruction is English. It also sought to determine the attitudes of the students towards code switching. Specifically, it attempted to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference between the attitudes towards code switching of real male and female?
2. Is there a significant relationship between the students' grades in English and their attitudes in code switching?
3. What are the commonly used types of code switching by the students?

Significance of the study

Language can be used in various ways. In everyday discourse, language choice reveals an important dimension in people's social lives. The use of code switching has been a part and a choice of interest of different individuals and for researches. For teachers of English, this study will bring awareness on the essentials of code switching, and this language choice must not be looked negatively as to their perception alone but as to its function in generating a successful language classroom interaction. For students, this will help them weigh between the usefulness of pure English from that of a code switching. They will also determine boundaries and limitations of code switching so that English fluency will not be overlooked, since, this is actually the real goal of language teaching. For administrators, the study will help them decide to send professors of English to trainings and seminars in code switching and the strategies behind this language choice so that better instruction in English will be facilitated. For researchers, a more intensified study in code switching will be formulated by using this as reference and basis.

Literature Review

Rosario and Maguddayo (2019) conducted a study on Code Switching of English Language Teachers and Students in an ESL Classroom. Results showed that from the three functions of teacher code switching, classroom management outdid the other two functions namely curriculum access and interpersonal relation. The teachers have a positive attitude toward the practice of code switching during their ESL classroom interaction. Furthermore, it revealed that code switching will make the students better understand topics and that their learning is not hindered when teachers code switch during classroom interactions. It makes

students understand the lesson easier to understand and it is a means of strengthening their comprehension. The results of the study indicated positive views of the respondents on code switching as one instructional strategy of learning. Apparently, code switching should be allowed for effective communication between students and the teacher in a natural and comfortable way to highlight the significance of a specific piece of information and explanation of complex concepts. Despite the uncertainties of many, teachers still feel indeterminate towards the merits of code switching in teaching English as a second language, code switching may still be considered as a useful technique in classroom interaction, especially if the goal is to clarify and convey the information to students in an efficient way.

Viduya (2018) said that apart from English, the two local languages namely Filipino and Iloko are utilized in the English classes both by the student teachers and their students. The unmarked language used by the student teachers is English and Filipino is readily used at their disposal. Iloko is the least frequently used language by the teachers and is not commonly used for pedagogical purposes. For discussion purposes, Filipino and Iloko are referred to as the local languages. In addition, the pronouns he and she are used alternately to refer to the sex of the student teacher. According to Bernardo (2004), there is already extensive research evidence on the positive consequences of bilingualism on the acquisition of metalinguistic knowledge. Many scholars of second language learning have argued that the first language can be a very important resource for learning a second language in which researchers have come to call this phenomenon positive transfer meaning. When bilingual persons use elements of their linguistic knowledge in their first language in learning a second language, there is flexibility in learning the language as a useful instrument in achieving educational purposes. Hence, he summarized that code-switching, being rule governed demonstrates the linguistic proficiency and facility of bilinguals. He further argued that code-switching can be a functional, useful or legitimate and potent resource for learning and teaching for bilingual students/speakers and teachers. Through this one will be relaxed in his or her language prescription in formal school environments to allow students and teachers to benefit from the use of this efficacious resource of developing knowledge and understanding.

According to Myers-Scotton (1993), bilingual speakers made choices between different languages. They used one language in certain occasions and another language on others. Code switching was not recognized as an object of serious study, and may even have been even ignored by observers. Switching requires communicative competence, learning how to use linguistic devices as emphatic, contrastive and/or emotional signals; linguistic

proficiency must be fairly advanced before code-switching can occur. Fluent bilinguals (usually older) switch more often, in more complicated structural environments, and with greater interactional sophistication than did less linguistically competent (usually younger). Edwards (1994) stressed out that switching involves the repetition for emphasis, for intimacy-of the same idea in both languages. Eridani (1998) on the other hand mentioned that code switching is a widespread and a relative feature of classroom discussion which is even more noticeable in English classroom where everybody is on their guard for grammatically incorrect utterances.

Sociolinguists who had studied code-switching before 1980's directed our attention to extra-linguistic factors such as topic, setting, relationship between participants, community norms and values, and societal, political and ideological developments, all of which were thought to influence speakers choice of language in conversation. Code-switching performs several functions (Zentell, 1985). First, people may use code-switching to hide fluency or memory problems in the second language (but this accounts for about only 10 percent of code switches). Second, code-switching is used to mark switching from informal situations (using native languages) to formal situations (using second language). Third, code-switching is used to exert control, especially between parents and children. Fourth, code-switching is use to align speakers with others in specific situations (e.g., defining oneself as a member of an ethnic group). Code-switching also 'functions to announce specific identities, create certain meanings, and facilitate particular interpersonal relationships' (Johnson, 2000, p.184).

Conceptual Framework

This study was guided by a number of theoretical assumptions related to bilingualism and communicative competence. Sociolinguistic functions are based on functions of code switching in children's conversation as espoused by Reyes (2004). Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework of the study. The input of the study comprises the use of CS between and among male and female in the classroom which will be determined through voice recording; perception and attitudes of students towards code switching which will be analyzed through questionnaires; and the effect of code switching in the classroom through recording also. The main process of gathering information throughout the duration of the study is by classroom observation. The output of the study is to determine mainly the purpose of using code switching like topic shift, emphasis, clarification, situation shift, accommodation and question shift to see the progress of language learning development

among the students with the useful accounts of code switching using the methodology of Bautista (1999) and Flores (2011) as patterned in the types of code switching by Hamers and Blanc (2000).

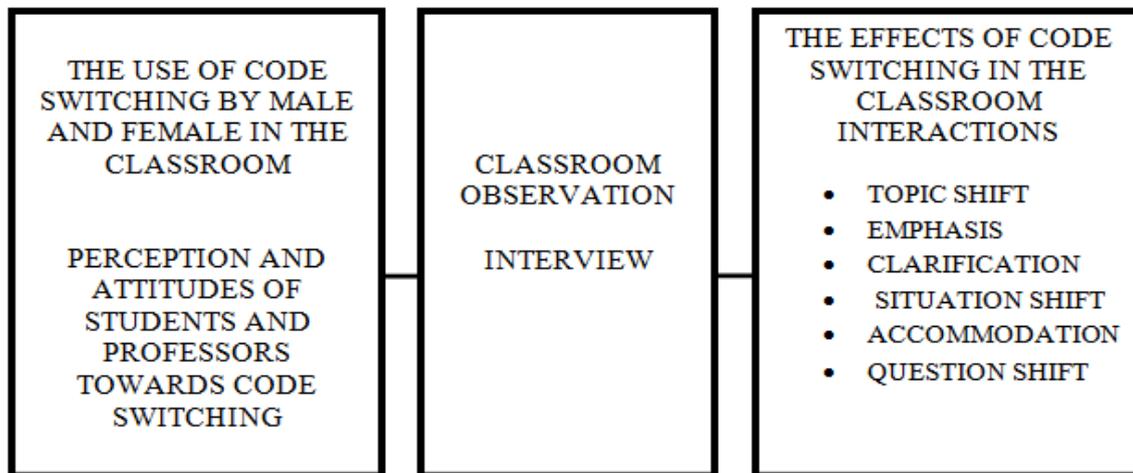


Figure 1. Framework on the Use of Code Switching Inside and Outside the Classroom

Methodology

Research Design

The descriptive and exploratory methods were used in this study. These methods were used because analysis and tabulation of data about the respondents' language use and choice have to be done. Qualitative approach was also used because informal discussions and in-depth interviews and observations with students as well as instructor's code switching were analyzed carefully.

Respondents

The respondents of the study were the sixty two (62) BSEd freshman students who were enrolled in the subject Computer Science-1.

Research Instrument

A self-made questionnaire was used to obtain information from the respondents on their attitudes towards code-switching in a class where the medium of instruction is English. The said instrument was validated by English teachers/professors. In addition, a tape recorder was utilized for a 12- hour classroom observation on the use of code-switching in the teaching of Computer Science-I.

Research Procedure

The researcher administered the questionnaires to the respondents. Retrieval of the questionnaires was made on the same date from the respondents. The respondents in their computer science class were scheduled for classroom observation for one month equivalent to 12 hours. Tape recording of the classroom observation was transcribed using Bautista's model of transcription.

Data Analysis

Percentages and mean scores were used to determine the attitudes of the students on code switching. Likewise, correlation technique was used to determine the relationship between the students' grades in English and their attitudes towards code switching.

To discuss how the switches are used in the study, Hamers and Blanc's methodology in analyzing the most preferred type of code switching by the participants was used wherein, the data were transcribed, read then analyzed carefully and the messages containing code switches were highlighted.

Results and Discussion

Table 1. Comparison of the Means of the Students' Attitudes in Code Switching

(Means and T-values for Male and Female Respondents in the Code Switching)

Gender	Mean	Variance	Computed t-value	Critical Value	Interpretation
Male	3.281	0.467212	-0.86	± 2.0	Not Significant
Female	3.308	0.398526			
Overall Mean = 3.2945 (Moderately Agree)					

The comparison between the means of the male and female respondents in terms of their attitude is shown in table 1. The mean of the students' attitude on code switching differ by 0.027. The difference was subjected to a t-test and the computed value is -0.86. The t-computed value was found less than the critical value (± 2.0) at 0.05 level of significance which means the null hypothesis is accepted. This implies that the difference in means of males and females in code switching which is 0.027 and is described as not significant. It implies further that the overall attitudes of males and females are comparable. This is almost comparable in the finding of Alcalá (2000) that bilingual individuals are equally capable of code-switching in

speech and writing and that they have generally positive attitude towards code-switching. They believe that oral code-switching reflects their identity and that oral code-switching allows them to relate better to the author of a text.

Table 2. Correlation between Students’ Grades in English and their Attitudes toward Code Switching (Correlation Value between Students’ Grades in English and their Attitude towards Code Switching)

Variables	Correlation Value	Description	Coefficient of Determination	Test Result
Grades and Attitudes on Code Switching	0.023	Negligible	0.053 %	Not Significant

Critical Value: ± 0.25

Level of Significance: 0.05

The degree of relationship of the students’ grades in English and their attitude towards code-switching was determined through the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient.

It can be gleaned from table 2 that the correlation between the students’ grades and their attitudes on code switching is negligible and not significant as indicated by the value of 0.023. This means that the grades of students in English are independent on their attitude on the use of code switching in the teaching-learning process.

Commonly Used Types of Code Switching

In addition, another focus of this study was to examine how students specifically in an I.T. class do code switch into various different languages, and create an assessment to see the impact of this communication process as to the conversativeness of the participants in expressing their goals or ideas.

Analyzing the students’ statements in the transcripts using Hamers and Blanc’s (2000) three main types of code switching, it was revealed that out of the 185 sentences with switches, only 6 or 3.24 percent is extrasentential code switching where the insertion of a tag from one language into an utterance which is entirely in another language is done. To validate the authenticity on the use of this type of code switching, the following transcripts were taken during class observations and focus group discussions.

S: What if the keys sir eh **kwan**, ahmmm, **kwan** sir, **lam mo po yun**. Column A lang aalisin. Hindi lahat, sir?

S: We admit that the life of Charles is incomplete without women but **ah**, in terms of...'**lam mo ito**.....

T: In terms of what?

S: Sir in terms of his objectives in creating ideas. His ideas are okay so it is God... not the women so without Charles, the women are nothing, **diba**?

Insertion of the students' tags like *kwan*, '*lam mo po yun*', '*lam mo ito*', and *diba* which are very similar in the finding of Flores (2011) were also noticed in the observation. These utterances, she claimed, are entirely in another language which suggest a shift to fill a word. In addition, 21 Or 11.35 percent is intersentential where switches of different types occur within the clause/sentence boundary. Like for example during class discussions,

S: *Sir paano po kung nawala?* Just control z?

T: Ok, click format then menu the paragraph.....

S: *Itinype lang* to make it ok. Then it will be good *parang ganito*.

S: In terms of usage, what is the other process *para maiba yung guhit*?

T: *Ok ganyan ang gagawin niyo*. So *lahat ng nakikita niyo dyan na magagawa niyo*. Example, the date is color red and bold.

T: So what we have to do? So *ang gagawin niyo lang* is *simple lang*. *Diinan, tignan ulit yung* shift mouse.

S: Ah combination of legging ang skinni sir. Those are the new trends now. *Maganda talaga. Uso sa Manila*.

S: Sir repeat the question *para mas masagot ng tama*. I like it.

T: Or what, *hindi ko na alam kung paano pa tayong makakapag* cope up.

T: Academic Council Meeting, *pag-uusapan naming lahat*. All your teachers; all your instructors will gather together.

The students' "*Sir paano po kung nawala? Just control z? In terms of usage, what is the other process para maiba yung guhit? Sir repeat the question para mas masagot ng tama. I like it. (pure English) plus Maganda talaga. Uso sa Manila.*" all indicate intersentential code switching where, a shift is done in clause or sentence boundaries; one clause being in one language, the other clause using another type of language. Finally, it was found out that 158 or 85.41 percent is intrasentential code switching. This further implies that the students usually

switch code within the word boundary or at any part in the sentence. During the formal and informal class discussions, the following scripts were noted to prove the observations.

T: *Ito, ililipat natin dun, imu-move natin sa first line, pag back space, tapos ang cursor natin, nandito.*

S: Wrong *ka na dyan* sir. That is.... Hahaha

T: I'll be giving you hand-outs then you are going to..... *parang* copy of the contents.

S: *Aba, naka* highlights

S: *Naka* italicized *pa* ah.

T: Guys, take note ah, *hindi niyo pwedeng i-center ang isang word lang na nasa* paragraph.

T: Red, poison, wars *diba* most of the time?

S: *Anu po, yung saksakan ng* memory card?

T: *Sandali, pero ang* two points, *pwedeng maretrieve, mabawi.*

S: After finals *na lang* sir.

S2: *Tignan niyo ksi ah oh diba? naka* highlights *ito.*

T: And..... *ano*.....? the greetings is?..... underlined.

Ss: (Arguing for colors)

The teacher's "*I'll be giving you hand-outs then you are going to..... parang* copy of the contents; *Ok, click format menu, menu the paragraph, then click tab botton, then I set mo dito, just type; and the students' Wrong ka na diyan* sir; *Red, red, red yan;* another student saying, *tignan niyo ksi ah oh diba?naka* highlights. *That's..Haha.* prove that code switching occurs in between each word or phrase/clause and at the beginning or end of the every utterance.

To further validate the authenticity of this observation, further evaluations of the same group of respondents were done secretly during a focus group discussion.

A. T: Yung acapela *din*, they make it as the human voice to accompany, ok *yung* harmony on a certain sound.

T: *So kahit wala siyang* musical instrument, *maganda ang pagkaka*harmonize *ng lahat ng mga* sounds because of the human voice....

S: *Nagvo-* voice lesson *siya* friend.

S: Grand final *na yun*.

B. S: Families and...ah family *muna*

S: *Eh mas magaling mag*counsel *yung* mother. *Mas magaling mag* counsel *yung nanay*.

S: *Ano*, in terms of family?

S: *Kasi, magagaling mag* advice *yung mga ano, yung mga* females. *Diba yung samother kesa sa mga* father *diba?*

S: *Parang* sign of inferiority *yung sinabi niya*.

S: Friends, *mas* superior *ang* girls.

S: *Mga* females is more *na nag* eexcel *sa* class

S: *Oy, mas* superior *ang mga* girls.

S: *Hala huwag mo akong vini*-video

The student's "*Kasi, magagaling mag* advice *yung mga ano, yung mga* females. *Diba yung sa* mother *kesa sa mga* father" again validates the fact that this language choice may occur repeatedly in any part of the sentence/statement. This implies that a person's proficiency in two languages makes it easy for him or her to shift from one language to another and of these types of switches, Intrasentential code switching is constantly noted from among the participants in this study most especially the students.

Distribution of the Commonly Used Types of Code Switching

Table 3. Frequency Distribution of the Commonly Used Types of Code Switching by the Students

Types of code switching	Frequency	Percent
Extrasentential	6	3.24
Intersentential	21	11.35
Intrasentential	158	85.41
Total	185	100.00

Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study the following conclusions were drawn:

Both the male and the female respondents do code switch at the same pace. This reflects the equal level of usage of the participants as to the mastery of the English and the Filipino languages including the vernacular in the locality for different speech acts like in the acclaim of D'Souzas Communicative Code-Mixing where a person's proficiency in two languages makes it easy for him/her to shift from one language to another and Culture-related Code-Mixing where one uses terms in the language which cannot be expressed in another language.

The students' grades in English are not affected by their use of code switching. This is strongly accepted because normally, code switching is being used as a classroom strategy for a sustained participation by the students. Moreover, Code switching usually occurs at the beginning of the sentence whenever any of the participants intends to ask question in a form of phrase only. However it also appears in any part of the sentence.

An evidence that there is no specific rule the participants follow in their patterns of code switching; that they just code switch in any form they wanted as the need to use it arises. This is closely related in the study of Flores (2011) which revealed that code switching occurs at the intersentential level or intra sentential level and even at extra sentential level. Here it was also validated that that a person's proficiency in two languages makes it easy for him or her to shift from one language to another.

Recommendations

Based on the conclusions of the study the following are recommended:

Teachers when inside the class should set functional and useful language policy contributory to the pursuit of the target language in the class as well as in the attainment of the learning objectives especially to classes of education students whose main future task is to mold the young ones.

Code switching can be used by teachers and students provided that the context is less formal and that the topics are out of the lesson. Pure English on the other hand should be used during the formal class discussion or, at least, it should not be outnumbered by Filipino words when in the classroom except in a Filipino subject where no use of English if necessary is anticipated.

Since the present study is exploratory in nature, other studies on code switching are highly recommended especially in an English class focusing on other domains such as language

diversity, pedagogical and moral implications, children's interactions, TV programs, etc. to strengthen the aforementioned findings.

It is high time for the curriculum planners to conduct an extensive study on code switching which seems very inevitable not only among the learners but also to all types of people in the Philippine context since issues in language use is now also deemed serious and closely relative to the learning progress of a child as reflected with the inclusion of the MTB-MLE in teaching pupils in grades 1 to 3 of the K-12 program curriculum of the Philippine Department of Education.

A study focusing on bisexuals' (gays and lesbians) use of code switching should also be taken into consideration since the present study only focused on real male and female utterances.

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EFL Students' Perception of Grammar Teaching: Isolated or Integrated in Skill Courses?

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Abstract

With grammar an indispensable component in EFL learning, it is crucial to examine tertiary English students' attitudes towards its instructional deliveries. One pertinent issue at the higher education is whether grammar should be taught as an isolated course (FonFs) or

integrated in task-based courses teaching higher skills such as reading and writing (a version of FonF). This study sought to investigate undergraduate EFL students' perception and affect towards the use of the two approaches in a respectable English Language Education Program of a private university in Indonesia. Drawing on questionnaire data, the study examines three areas of interest: Perceived Effectiveness, Stimulation Level, and Students' Preferences. The questionnaire data showed that students perceived both approaches positively, however, they generally found the isolated approach more favorable. The latter received extremely positive responses in terms of helping students to understand the meaning of grammatical forms, foster accuracy, and write in English. Regarding stimulation level, many more students surprisingly saw the isolated approach to motivate them considerably to learn grammar deeper. This may have been due to its assessment system that forced students to learn to pass the isolated grammar courses. However, neither type of grammar teaching tended to attract students very strongly in class. Furthermore, students were inclined to favor deductive and explicit teaching methods and shorter texts, which are typically associated with isolated grammar teaching. In spite of this, the majority of students preferred both methods and believed they were complementary.

Keywords: *attitude, preference, independent grammar delivery, integrated grammar delivery*

Introduction

An indispensable language component, grammar is essential for language learners to master in order to have a good command of the target language. However, the debate on how grammar may be best taught seems to have never been resolved. One point that has been much disputed among language instructors is whether grammar should be delivered as an isolated/separate course (Focus on Forms) or integratively in a larger communicative context where natural language use becomes the focus of instruction (Focus on Form). Despite increasing favor towards more integrated grammar teaching, delivering grammar in independent courses based on a structural-based syllabus still seems to be common in many parts of the world, including in Indonesia, and is believed to be an effective way to teach grammar. In the context where teachers assume more authority and have to teach a larger number of students, the use of isolated grammar teaching delivery seems to be appropriate. In spite of this, the approach has also been criticised because it is considered to ignore the more natural principles of language acquisition and not helpful in promoting students'

communicative skills. Hence, to better understand the issue from a practical perspective, the present research seeks to examine the perception of tertiary EFL students who have experienced FonFs and FonF of the two approaches. This study is significant as there is still relatively limited research in this area. Knowledge of students' perception is also invaluable as it contributes to their success or failure in learning. This research will be of interest to those interested in grammar teaching in general and language practitioners dealing with English language major programs for EFL students.

Literature Review

The debate whether grammar should be taught separately or integratively is inseparable from the strive to improve students' abilities to use language form in real communicative contexts. In general, integrated grammar teaching refers to the teaching of grammar in communicative contexts that promote realistic use of language. Isolated grammar teaching, on the other hand, usually refers to approaches/methods of teaching grammatical rules using explicit strategies with limited communicative contents.

Despite this common differentiation, Long (1991) came up with a more specific typology: Focus on form and focus on forms. Arguing that the teaching of form must be embedded in first and foremost meaningful discourse, Long (1991) defined "Focus on form" as an approach which draws learners's "attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication" (Long, 1991, pp. 45-46). Using a task-based syllabus, focus on form delivers grammar reactively (Long, 2015) and facilitates a slower process to help students acquire form through natural language use. It is therefore imperative for learners to learn through tasks or "real world communicative uses to which [they] will put the L2 beyond the classroom" (Long, 2016, p.6).

Focus on forms, on the other hand, represents an isolated approach to grammar teaching. It derives from the traditional structural syllabus-based lessons and consists of the delivery and practice of discrete grammatical items (Long, 1991). He further elaborated that focus on forms is not based on needs analysis, often employs unauthentic language models with little communicative activity, and ignore natural sequences in language acquisition (Long, 1998, 2016).

However, unlike what Long (1991, 1998) suggested, teaching grammar separately is not necessarily always explicit, uncommunicative, and preplanned. Ellis (2016) rightly argued that grammar instructions based on a structure-based syllabus may also include communicative

contents.³ On the other hand, grammatical rules may be delivered explicitly and preplanned in a focus on form instruction, and implicitly and incidentally in a focus on forms one. With this in mind, Ellis had a more relaxed definition of focus on form, which he believed to refer to “various techniques designed to attract learners’ attention to form while they are using the L2 as a tool for communicating” (2016, p.5), while focus on forms is “various devices (such as ‘exercises’) designed to direct learners’ attention to specific forms that are to be studied and learned as objects (ibid). In line with this, Doughty and Williams (1998) argued that focus on form and focus on forms (FonF and FonFs) must not be seen as two polar ends. The crucial difference is “focus on form entails a focus on formal elements of language, whereas focus on formS is limited to such a focus” (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p.4). They believe that the fundamental feature of focus on form (FonF) is that meaning and use must be given prior to drawing learners’ attention to the linguistic form used to express the meaning (ibid).

FonF is favored for several traits. Firstly, it is believed to follow the more natural steps of language acquisition and encourage noticing while learners are exposed to realistic language use (Long, 1998). More focus on communicative tasks through focus on form is also considered to promote genuine language competence (Doughty, 2001). In line with this, Ellis (2015) suggested that FonF may enhance not only fluency but also accuracy through corrective feedback while students attempt to communicate.

Apart from the above benefits, the integrative approach has its own drawbacks. Poole (2005) for instance, suggested that more intensive grammar instruction may be needed because learners tend to pay much more attention to vocabulary than grammar. He also pointed out that focus on form, which requires a small class, well-trained teachers, and high learners’ participation, will be difficult to carry out in most situations, especially in developing countries, where classes are normally overcrowded. In addition to this, a very individualistic method, it does not seem to suit cultures in which problems are collectively solved and teacher-centered teaching is preferred.

Like FonF, delivering grammar separately like in focus on forms also has its pros and cons. According to DeKeyser (1998), teaching grammar explicitly through an isolated instruction is useful to help learners attain utmost understanding through exercises to internalise the knowledge so that they can easily refer to it during communicative tasks. As

³It is important to note, as Ellis (2016) pointed out, that form in FonF/FonFs is not limited to grammar, but also other formal language components such as vocabulary.

such, it assists students in learning rare forms and “complex/abstract features”, especially those “features in which errors are more likely to lead to communication breakdowns” (Spada & Lightbown, p. 4). Spada and Lightbown (2008) further pointed out that separate grammar teaching also enables students to learn grammatical items that are “rare or absent in the language they are exposed to in the CLT or CBI classroom” (p.195). In spite of all of the potential benefits, it is argued that the knowledge of rules students obtained from an isolated delivery does not guarantee students to be able to communicate, which becomes the main objection to the approach. However, this weakness may be mitigated by giving more opportunities to practice the forms in communicative activities.

Although ELT scholars and practitioners seem to favor FonF because of its communicative appeal, delivering grammar in independent courses based on a structural-based syllabus seems to be a common tradition among Indonesian tertiary English language programs. In language programs that expect students to learn a substantial number of forms within a relatively short time and use of English is limited outside classes, this FonFs approach seems to be an appropriate choice. Ellis (2015, p.10), however, believes that the two types of grammar teaching are complementary and points out there is “no need to view [them] as oppositional”.

In line with Ellis’ (2015) idea the two approaches in grammar teaching should not be viewed as against each other, Norris and Ortega (2000), who analyzed various primary research on FonF and FonFs, concluded that the two approaches are equally effective. Nevertheless, their study has been criticised for having some weakness. One downside Sheen (2005) pointed out was while it used Long’s term of Focus on Form, they did not use his criteria for differentiating FonF and FonFs. Sheen (2005) conducted an experimental study of FonF and FonFs involving sixth grade students in an elementary school in Quebec. The result showed that an FonFs approach helped students improve significantly in a posttest in the two targeted grammar areas, while students receiving an FonF instruction continued making largely incorrect forms. Therefore, he does not believe that excluding FonFs from second language learning is a positive move.

Unlike Sheen’s (2005) experimental study, research conducted by Graus and Coppen (2015) on student teachers’ perception showed that each approach was favored in different ways. EFL student teachers enrolled in undergraduate and postgraduate teacher education programmes at Dutch universities of applied sciences generally preferred form-focused and explicit instruction and FonFs. Meanwhile, more senior and postgraduate students tended to

favor more meaning-focused and implicit instruction and FonF. However, the students believed that more traditional form-focused approaches are more suitable for teaching higher-level language learners.

In addition, examining learners' perception of grammar instruction and correction at an American University, Loewen et al (2009) found that ESL students put less emphasis on the need for grammar instruction and error correction and were more motivated to learn communicative skills than EFL ones. The ESL students may no longer have had a strong need to learn grammar compared to the latter because they had received more grammar instruction. Referring to Siegel (2003, in Loewen et al, 2009), Loewen et al (2009) also suggested that ESL students tended to be more concerned with learning how to use grammar in communication than learning grammar in a context where L2 is often used in communication. The foreign language learners, on the other hand, presumably had fewer opportunities to communicate in L2 outside classes, and therefore may have seen grammar instruction to be more important. More recent studies that specifically examined FonF and FonFs among adult learners seem to be scarce. The present study may hopefully provide meaningful insights on the implementation of FonF and FonFs approaches.

The Study

This qualitative study seeks to find out about students' perception of FonFs and FonF implemented in an English Language Education program in Indonesia. With the different conditions in which the two approaches took place, the present study evidently does not intend to examine the perceived merits or disadvantages of the approaches in a vacuum. Rather, it attempts to describe how they are perceived among students as they are implemented with the limitations of the context. It is worth noting that English is rarely used for communication outside the faculty. People normally communicate in Indonesian or vernacular languages, especially Javanese.

The isolated grammar teaching examined in this study was delivered through independent grammar courses, which may be considered to be a type of FonFs as suggested by Doughty and Williams (1998). There were two grammar courses in the program (Basic Grammar and Intermediate Grammar). These grammar courses, each worth 4 credits including the tutorials, were based on structural syllabi with the primary focus on the teaching of discrete grammatical forms. The targeted forms were introduced in contexts using short texts, which were followed by a language focus session to explain grammatical rules and how the

grammatical forms are used using primarily deductive strategies. In addition, exercises were normally given at the level of sentences but short exchanges and texts from authentic materials were sometimes included. In order to pass the courses, students were assessed through three to four tests during the semester. Each class normally consisted of 22-27 students with the materials all written in English. However, teachers were allowed to use much L1 and often did when explaining rules and difficult parts.

The second type of grammar teaching examined in this study was that embedded in other skill courses such as writing. This approach may be primarily seen as a type of FonF (Doughty & Williams, 1998). Focus on grammar was only a complement to the language tasks given in the courses and was usually delivered incidentally to address common problems students had faced in the tasks. However, a pre-planned instruction addressing a discrete grammar item might be given several times during the courses. This was normally administered when a particular form was considered central in the task (e.g. the passive for writing informational procedural essays) after the meaning of the grammatical form was relatively evident through expanded contexts. It was “relatively evident” because having students with mixed abilities, not everyone in the skill courses may have found the meaning clear. It is also worth noting that several topics of the integrated grammar teaching were planned in two writing courses’ syllabi following the needs of the genres taught and therefore the approach may not be classified as a strong form of FonF. All the skill courses were run with different number of students. They typically consisted of respectively 25, 20, 25, and 16 students for reading, writing, listening, and speaking courses. Furthermore, students’ grammar was normally assessed in skill courses, but it was not a substantial part in the evaluation as it was not the focus of the courses. However, it might be worth up to almost 20% in the assessment rubrics of writing courses.

Research Questions

The research seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. How do students of the English Language Education Program perceive isolated and integrated grammar teaching?
2. Which grammar teaching approach do the students prefer to help them learn grammar?

Participants

This study involved 99 first year EFL students of lower intermediate to advanced levels enrolled in an English Language Education Program in Indonesia. They made up around

90% of the batch. The students had taken Basic and/or Intermediate Grammar, most of whom had passed both courses and a few of the skill courses with integrated language focus.

Data Collection Instrument

To get the required data to answer the research questions, we designed a questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of four parts (A-D) with 34 closed-ended questions and 1 open-ended question. Part A, which consisted of 12 items, addressed students' beliefs on isolated grammar teaching (a version of FonFs) manifested in independent grammar courses. Part B, which also consisted of 12 items, was designed to elicit similar information as in Part A of integrated grammar teaching (a version of FonF). Furthermore, Part C consisted of 10 items and was designed to elicit students' perception of approaches typically associated with either the isolated or integrated grammar teaching. All the questions of Part A-C took the form of five-point-Likert scales. The last part, Part D, was a multiple choice item where students were asked to choose one answer. To ensure that the participants understood the intended approaches, FonFs and FonF were respectively referred to as "grammar teaching through independent grammar courses" and "grammar teaching integrated in skill courses". Before the instrument was administered, the questionnaire was piloted, revised, and further improved with the inputs of the program's senior research colleagues.

Data Collection Procedure

To collect the required data, the prepared questionnaire was distributed to the participants in 5 different classes. The participants filled in the questionnaire in our presence.

Data Collection Analysis

The gathered data were then analyzed using content analysis.

Findings and Discussion

This section discusses the study's findings drawn from the questionnaire data. First of all, students' perception of the isolated/integrated grammar teaching approaches is discussed, including Perceived Effectiveness, Perceived Stimulation Level, and Perceived Delivery. Afterwards, students' preferred grammar teaching approach is explained.

Students' Perception of the Isolated/Integrated Grammar Teaching Approaches

Perceived effectiveness. The discussion on this part is based on the data analysis on the questionnaire items in Part A and Part B.

Table 1

Participants' Responses to Q1 and Q4 of Part A and Part B

Isolated Instruction								
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean		Questions
89%	1%	1%	10%	59%	30%	3.14	Q1	How much do the <i>independent grammar</i> courses help you to understand the meaning of the grammatical forms taught?
70%	0%	1%	29%	52%	18%	2.88	Q4	How do the <i>independent grammar</i> courses help you to understand how to use the grammatical forms taught in the communication context?
Integrated Instruction								
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean		Questions
68%	1%	0%	31%	59%	9%	2.75	Q1	How much does the <i>integrated grammar</i> teaching help you to understand the meaning of the grammatical forms taught?
62%	0%	2%	36%	49%	12%	2.72	Q4	How does the <i>integrated grammar</i> teaching help you to understand how to use the grammatical forms taught in the communication context?
0=not helpful, 1=slightly helpful, 2=moderately helpful, 3=very helpful, 4=extremely helpful								

As shown in Table 1, students gave an overwhelmingly positive response to isolated grammar teaching in helping them to understand the meaning of grammatical forms (Q1). 89% of the participants ticked “very helpful” or “extremely helpful” for the approach while the integrated approach only obtained 68% of the students’ responses for this respect. Isolated instruction also obtained a stronger favorable response from students when it comes to helping them understand how to use grammatical forms in communication (Q4). Here, 70% of the students believed the isolated instructions to be very useful/extremely useful while its counterpart only received a moderate percentage (62%). With more explicit explanations and the support of L1 use, the isolated grammar teaching seems to have been more effective to explain grammatical meaning and usage to students compared to the integrated one. This supports DeKeyser’s (1998) view that direct explanation of rules in an isolated grammar course may be beneficial to promote learners’ utmost understanding through exercise to help learners internalize and eventually apply the rules in communicative settings.

Although accuracy is not always essential in language learning, it often makes communication more effective and is crucial in specific contexts of language use. With this in mind, this present study also sought to see how the grammar teaching approaches are perceived among students in this respect.

Table 2

Participants’ Responses to Q2 of Part A and Part B

Isolated Instruction									Questions
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean			
78%	0%	2%	20%	59%	19%	2.95	Q2	How much do the <i>independent</i> grammar courses help you to improve your language accuracy?	
Integrated Instruction									Questions
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean			
66%	0%	3%	31%	57%	9%	2.72	Q2	How much does the <i>integrated</i> grammar teaching help you to improve your language accuracy?	

As shown in Table 2, the participants tended to favor the isolated teaching more significantly compared to the integrated one concerning accuracy. More respondents believed that the isolated approach was very/extremely helpful for them in fostering the element (IsA=78%, InA=66%). The isolated instruction may have been more effective because it gives much emphasis on getting students to use forms appropriately through substantial exercises; codes are seen to carry out distinct linguistic meanings and should be applied correctly.

Furthermore, in relation to applying grammar beyond grammar classroom (Table 3, Q5), students gave a strongly positive response to isolated instruction and moderate one to the integrated approach. As much as 69% reported that isolated grammar teaching was helpful/very helpful, while only 56% indicated the same for its counterpart.

However, in terms of specific skills development, students tended to give different values to the approaches. They evidently showed very positive views of both isolated and integrated grammar teaching for facilitating them to write (Table 3, Q9). Respectively 79% and 74% of the participants indicated that the approaches were either very helpful or extremely helpful for them in writing. Most students also demonstrated a strong favor towards isolated instruction for developing their reading skill (70% for very helpful or extremely helpful).

Nevertheless, both approaches tended to be seen less helpful in developing listening and speaking abilities. Needing more automaticity in processing or producing appropriate grammatical forms, speaking and listening skills seem to need more practice to foster. In writing and reading, on the other hand, students normally have more time to process their linguistic outputs or inputs. In spite of this, overall students had relatively positive views towards both types of grammar teaching, although they tended to favor the isolated one better.

Table 3

Participants' Responses on Q5-Q9 of Part A and Part B

Isolated Instruction								Questions
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean		
69%	0%	1%	30%	52%	17%	2.86	Q5	How much do the <i>independent grammar</i> courses help you to use the grammatical forms taught when you use your English outside grammar class?

46 %	0%	10 %	43 %	36 %	10 %	2.46	Q6	How much do the <i>independent grammar</i> courses help you to improve your listening ability?
56 %	0%	6%	38 %	50 %	6%	2.56	Q7	How much do the <i>independent grammar</i> courses help you to improve your speaking ability?
70 %	1%	1%	29 %	53 %	17 %	2.84	Q8	How much do the <i>independent grammar</i> courses help you to improve your reading ability?
79 %	1%	1%	20 %	47 %	32 %	3.06	Q9	How much do the <i>independent grammar</i> courses help you to improve your writing ability?
Integrated Instruction								
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mea n		Questions
56 %	0%	5%	39 %	42 %	13 %	2.64	Q5	How much does the <i>integrated grammar</i> teaching help you to use the grammatical forms taught when you use your English outside grammar class?
48 %	0%	6%	46 %	39 %	9%	2.51	Q6	How much does the <i>integrated grammar</i> teaching help you to improve your listening ability?
56 %	1%	6%	37 %	42 %	13 %	2.61	Q7	How much does the <i>integrated grammar</i> teaching help you to improve your speaking ability?
56 %	0%	3%	41 %	46 %	10 %	2.63	Q8	How much does the <i>integrated grammar</i> teaching help you to improve your reading ability?
74 %	0%	1%	25 %	49 %	24 %	2.97	Q9	How much does the <i>integrated grammar</i> teaching help you to improve your writing ability?

Furthermore, Table 4 shows that both approaches obtained somewhat moderately positive responses in how they enhance students to be confident English users. While around halves of the participants felt each of them was very or extremely helpful (IsA=53%, InA=48%), around the other halves indicated they only assisted them moderately (IsA=43%, InA=44%). Despite this, assuming that in-class grammar learning just makes up one component in the process of L2 acquisition, both approaches seem to have worked relatively well in the EFL context. Here, however, students demonstrated slightly more favorable responses towards the isolated approach. This suggests that traditional grammar teaching may enhance students' self-assurance in communication, rather than inhibiting them from too much self-consciousness of language accuracy, which normally receives much emphasis in the approach.

Table 4

Participants' Responses to Q10 of Part A and Part B

Isolated Instruction								
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean		Questions
53%	0%	4%	43%	37%	15%	2.64	Q10	How much do the <i>independent grammar</i> courses help you to be a confident English user?
Integrated Instruction								
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean		Questions
48%	0%	7%	44%	35%	13%	2.55	Q10	How much does the <i>integrated grammar</i> teaching help you to be a confident English user?

Perceived stimulation level. Students showed a fairly strong positive response towards isolated grammar teaching in association to motivation (Table 5, Q11). With 69% of the participants showing strong favor to the isolated approach for Q11 but only 55% for the integrated approach, the isolated instruction seemed to have been more successful in motivating students to learn English grammar further. Also, 2% of the participants even believed that integrated grammar teaching did not motivate them at all to study grammar more, while none indicated so for isolated grammar teaching.

Table 5

Participants' Responses to Q11 and Q12 of Part A and Part B

Isolated Instruction								
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean		Questions
69%	0%	3%	28%	53%	16%	2.82	Q1 1	How much do the <i>independent grammar</i> courses motivate you to learn grammar more deeply?
45%	0%	11%	43%	36%	9%	2.43	Q1 2	How much do you find studying grammar in the <i>independent grammar</i> courses interesting?
Integrated Instruction								
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean		Questions
55%	2%	2%	41%	39%	15%	2.64	Q1 1	How much does the <i>integrated grammar</i> teaching motivate you to learn grammar more deeply?
43%	0%	6%	51%	36%	7%	2.44	Q1 2	How much do you find studying grammar through the <i>integrated grammar</i> teaching interesting?

Interestingly, both approaches obtained relatively low means on their level of stimulation in class (Table 5, Q12). Many students may not have been very interested in grammar because there was a lot of pressure to learn various grammatical forms within several years in the EFL context. Students tended to be divided between those who considered them to be just moderately interesting (IsA=43%, InA=51%) and those who saw them to be very or extremely interesting (IsA=45%, InA=43%). Looking at the percentages, integrated grammar teaching did not deliver significantly compared to the isolated approach although the former is normally expected to be more attractive. On the other hand, there were slightly more students who saw isolated grammar teaching very or extremely interesting compared to those who thought the same of the integrated approach. In other words, the isolated approach is not necessarily boring. Perhaps students found it motivating because it is informative while more analytical students might have found it intellectually interesting.

Perceived delivery. In terms of delivery, two aspects become the focus of discussion in this study, i.e the learning process, whether it is rule-driven (deductive) learning or rule-

discovery (inductive) learning, and the types of texts used in exercises (short texts or longer texts).

Rule-driven learning vs. Rule-discovery learning. The findings somehow suggest that while rule-discovery learning (Table 6, Q4-Q6) is often encouraged, rule-driven learning—where direct reference to rules is initially facilitated (Table 6, Q1-Q3)—seemed to be more helpful among the participants.

Table 6

Participants' Responses to Q1-Q6 of Part C

Rule-driven (Deductive) Learning								
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mea n		Questions
72 %	0%	6%	22 %	47 %	24 %	2.89	Q1	How much does it help you to learn grammar when the teacher gives you the grammatical rule(s) at the beginning?
56 %	0%	8%	36 %	37 %	18 %	2.66	Q2	How much do you like it when the teacher gives you the grammatical rule(s) at the beginning?
63 %	0%	3%	34 %	45 %	17 %	2.77	Q3	How much does referring to grammatical rules help you to learn grammar?
Rule-discovery (Inductive) Learning								
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mea n		Questions
37 %	7%	10 %	45 %	34 %	3%	2.16	Q4	How much does it help you to learn grammar if you are given an opportunity to discover the rule of a grammatical form by yourself?
28 %	9%	12 %	51 %	24 %	4%	2.02	Q5	How much do you like it if you are given an opportunity to discover the rule of a grammatical form by yourself?
35 %	5%	16 %	44 %	26 %	9%	2.17	Q6	How much does discovering the rule of a grammatical form by yourself help you to learn grammar?

There were 72% of the participants who strongly believed that it would be beneficial if the teacher directly gave them the grammatical rules in the beginning of the lesson (Q1), while only 37% of them strongly thought that being given a chance to discover the rules by themselves was helpful (Q4).

With 56% responding strongly to Q2 and only 28% to Q5, the deductive method was also shown to be more well-liked than the inductive one. In addition, more students gave very positive responses to direct reference to rules when studying independently (Q3, 63%) than to finding the rules by themselves (Q6, 35%).

These results echo Hendriani's (2018) study finding that deductive learning is more preferred by the Indonesian higher education students. They also seem to confirm Loewen et.al.'s (2009) qualitative finding that students "did not like to be left on their own when studying grammar" (p.101). One emerging reason for this in the study was they found it not easy to learn a grammar textbook independently.

Short texts vs. Longer texts. For the purpose of in depth investigation, the study also looked into the lengths of texts that students perceived to be helpful and which they preferred in learning grammar. Short texts consist of 1-2 lines of writing, while discourse refers to longer texts in the form of paragraphs and conversation texts. The summary of the findings can be seen in Table 7. Overall, the data did not show any strong tendency in regards with either form, especially concerning how they felt about it. However, more students tended to consider short texts to assist them better than longer ones and find the former more favorable.

Table 7

Participants' Responses to Q7-Q10 of Part C

Short Texts (1-2 lines)								Questions
3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean		
55%	0%	6%	39%	43%	11%	2.60	Q7	How much does it help you to learn grammar with an exercise consisting of short texts of 1-2 lines?
38%	1%	6%	55%	29%	9%	2.39	Q8	How do you like grammar exercises consisting of short texts of 1-2 lines?
Discourse (Paragraph/Conversation)								

3,4	0	1	2	3	4	Mean		Questions
47%	1%	2%	49%	37%	10%	2.54	Q9	How much do exercises consisting of discourse level items (beyond sentence level, such as paragraphs and conversations) help you?
24%	1%	12%	63%	17%	7%	2.17	Q10	How do you like grammar exercises consisting of discourse level items (beyond sentence level, such as paragraphs and conversations)?

As much as 55% of the participants believed that short texts were very or extremely helpful as compared to 47% who thought the same of longer texts. Considerably more students reported to have strongly positive feelings towards short texts as compared to longer texts. This is an interesting finding as longer texts are normally thought to be more helpful by providing more authentic expanded contexts.

Presenting simpler and more manageable linguistic inputs, shorter texts may facilitate students better in their grammar learning especially for lower level students. As Guariento and Morley (2001) pointed out, less proficient students may find even simple texts frustrating and confusing unless they are lexically and syntactically simple and the content is familiar.

Students' Preferred Grammar Teaching Approach(es)

Concluding the findings on the effectiveness, stimulation level, and types of material deliveries, the next important question is, "Which grammar teaching approach do students prefer?" The questionnaire data showed that the high majority of students (68%) believed both approaches supported their grammar learning, 19.6% preferred isolated grammar teaching, and 11.3% chose the integrated approach.

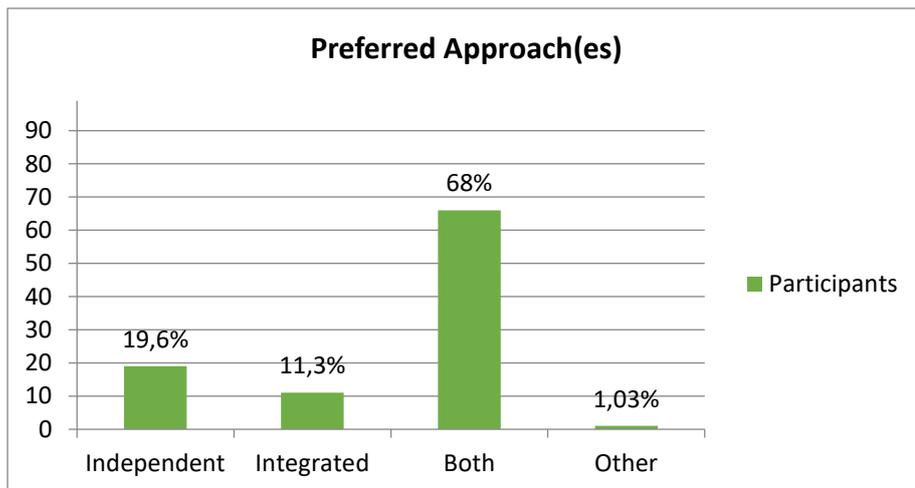


Figure 1. Participants' Preference on Grammar Teaching Approaches

Students gave different reasons for selecting both approaches, but most saw them to be complementary. They generally believed while independent grammar course assisted them to acquire grammatical rules and concepts, the integrated approach helped them to apply the rules in contexts and/or get repeated chances to reinforce what they have learned in independent grammar courses. This finding supports the view that the two approaches support each other (Ellis, 2015).

Furthermore, those who preferred isolated grammar teaching tended to like the approach because it was focused, detailed, easier to understand, and/or straightforward. One student also mentioned being more motivated to learn in independent grammar courses to get better grades. On the other hand, those preferring integrated grammar generally liked the approach because it enabled them to apply their grammar in context or communication. Some students choosing either approach said they preferred one of them because it was interesting to them.

Conclusion

Based on students' perception, it was shown that isolated grammar teaching (FonFs as a case in point) was seen to be generally more favorable than the integrated one in the tertiary EFL context. The questionnaire data demonstrated that the more traditional approach was seen to be especially helpful to understand the meaning of grammatical items and to foster accuracy. Allowing the use of L1 and being a more focused and intensive grammar instruction, the FonFs seems to have been more impactful than the Focus on Form approach in these aspects. While the latter (FonF) is normally recommended for assisting students to communicate, the findings

showed that it was not seen to be more superior than the isolated one (FonFs) in helping students to foster their communicative skills in context.

The isolated grammar teaching was instead seen to be slightly more effective than the integrated one in assisting students in their writing and perceived to be more significantly helpful in reading tasks. This seems to have been due to factors such as the communicative content of the isolated grammar, repeated recycling through many exercises, comprehensive coverage of grammatical items, and the tertiary students' cognitive maturity.

In addition, students were more inclined to favor the deductive method, which is a common characteristic of FonFs. In spite of the favor to the isolated approach, both ways of teaching grammar were mostly seen to be complementary, which makes sense as each of them has different strengths and potential benefits. However, this study also revealed that neither approach received many positive responses when it came to helping students to be confident English users. This echoes the common issue with grammar teaching. More research is necessary to find out if this is also the case with both approaches in other tertiary EFL contexts.

Apart from this, this study implies that, as Ellis (2015) has put it, isolated and integrated grammar teaching should not be seen as two oppositional approaches. Neither way is more superior than the other as they may be used to serve different needs of the students. The assumption that isolated grammar delivery is less helpful because it does not adhere to the principles of "more natural language acquisition" is obviously shown to be fallacious in the EFL context.

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Filipino to English Transfer Errors in Writing Among College Students: Implications for the Senior High School English Curriculum

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Abstract

Language transfer is an invasive term that has led to varied interpretations and research practices of it. This paper attempted to find out interlanguage transfer errors evident in the written outputs of CEU's three bigger schools/colleges and their implications to the new educational program of the Philippines, the Senior High School of the K to 12.

Oral communication makes sense in a dialogue; it is a back and forth negotiation of meanings between the communicators. On the other hand, written communication is read; therefore misinterpretations of the meanings of the message being transferred are unavoidable and sometimes worsened (Penman, 1998). This paved a way for the researcher to explore lapses in students' written discourse, particularly, those which are transferred from L1 to L2.

This study determined the types and extent of transfer errors in the written compositions of the student-respondents through Error Analysis (EA) and was found out to have been contaminated with errors in grammar, lexical choice, semantics and mechanics.

Grammatical errors were found to be most prevalent especially in verb, pronoun and preposition usage; the other types of transfer errors such as lexical, semantics, and mechanics do not show much problem; students enrolled in different programs showed varying language needs as revealed by the type and extent of occurrence of transfer errors in their written compositions.

Through the findings and conclusions drawn from this study, the researcher recommends that curriculum planners of the K to 12 program consider the implications yielded by the result of analysis of this study in their preparation/ revision of the basic education curriculum for the Senior High School. Furthermore, the researcher encourages the basic

education teachers and college instructors of English to intensify the teaching of grammar, reading comprehension to reconcile meanings and enrich vocabulary loading, and improve spelling to avoid recurring transfer errors among their students' written outputs.

Keywords: *Transfer Errors; Error Analysis (EA); Senior High School; K to 12*

Introduction

The story of English in the Philippines can be traced to 1898 when the American teachers called the *Thomasites* (named after the ship, S.S. Thomas) came to the Philippine soil towards the end of the Philippine-American War. Filipinos were taught how to read, speak and write in the English language. It is a surprising fact that within a short span of 41 years, the language had spread rapidly and steadily across the country compared to the 333 years of Spanish colonization that made only 2 percent of the populace to speak the “then” second language (L2)- Spanish. (Gonzalez, 2004)

Over the years, the English language has continued to flourish as it has become the language of commerce, education and industry. Today, the language has remained a comfortable tongue among the Filipinos. After learning the nuances of the English language straight from the native speakers, most Filipinos have been using it as their second language.

Even after the Philippine Independence, Filipinos continued to use English despite the fact that there was no formal-language planning agency that set direction for the language. It was not until the formation of the 1987 Philippine Constitution that dictates the use of both Filipino and English as media of instruction in Philippine schools. This was later on intensified through DECS Order No. 52 series of 1987 dubbed as “Bilingual Education Program” (BEP) (Martin, 2012).

The use of both languages as media of instruction in Philippine schools was assumed, in most studies, to have contributed to the deterioration of proficiency in the second language (referring to English) since the vernacular was used extensively in the country with an estimate of 21.5 million speakers, according to the 2000 Census.

The deterioration of the use of the English language among Filipino learners, especially in written form, has become evident at present. Errors in grammar, vocabulary, punctuation,

capitalization, and transition of thoughts, among others, have become the concerns of English educators, curriculum planners, and even the government.

In 2003, former President Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo issued Executive Order No. 210 which aimed at establishing a policy to strengthen the use of English as medium of instruction. She believed that, through enhancing and giving more emphases on both written and oral communication in English, the economy could be great again. It is through the efficient use of the second language that an average Filipino can establish connection and friendship with anyone in the world.

Despite the efforts exerted by the Department of Education and even the Philippine Government itself, the poor use of the English language has become an object of great concern in the country. This concern is aptly articulated by Sandlin (2008), thus:

“The Philippines has terrible talent shortage, and the government and the press are in denial. English is the only thing that can save the country, and no one here cares or even understands that the Filipinos have a crisis... God save the Philippines. I hate to see the country falling ever deeper into an English-deprived-abys.”

In 2008, Education Secretary Jesli Lopus launched DepEd’s flagship program known as Project “Turning Around Low Performance in English” or TURN. The program recognized the importance of English proficiency as an important building block in learning. (DepEd, 2008). The project aimed at giving English proficiency trainings to teachers in the Basic Education whose medium of instruction is English, especially those whose schools’ performances are significantly low. Through this training of basic education teachers, transfer of the second language proficiency to students could be more effective.

In the new K to 12 Program, the primary school system is turned into a mother-tongue-based multilingual education (Cruz and Mahboob, 2008), a measure supported by the findings of Rillo et al (2019) that children have good grasps of things in the language where they are first exposed to from and including baby talk. This is also to gain more confidence in speaking the vernacular (Khati, 2011), which is often a problem because of socio-cultural factors (Rillo and Alieto, 2018).

Materials and Methods

This study dealt with the analysis of the present conditions of the student-respondents’ transfer errors from Filipino to English in their written compositions, by identifying what types of errors and how often do these errors occur. From the findings, certain measures may be

suggested to correct these errors, which may provide valuable inputs to the K to 12 language program for senior high school or grades 11 and 12 of the basic education.

Method of Research

This study made use of the descriptive method content analysis because it deals with the analysis of errors in the written discourse of the student-respondents.

Furthermore, according to Patten and Newhart (2017), the descriptive research is a purposive process of gathering, analyzing, classifying, and tabulating data about prevailing conditions, practices, processes, trends, and cause-effect relationships and then making adequate and accurate interpretation about such data with or without or sometimes minimal aid of statistical methods. He also reiterated that it ascertains prevailing conditions of facts in a group under study. It also gives either qualitative or quantitative, or both, descriptions of the general characteristics of the group. In addition, comparisons of the characteristics of two groups or cases may be made to determine their similarities and differences. The variables or conditions studied are not usually controlled because there is no variable manipulated.

Respondents of the Study

The respondents of the study were freshman college students of health-allied programs, who are speakers of Filipino (Tagalog).

Sampling Technique

The researcher made use of purposive sampling technique with stratified sampling method, where *Tagalog-speaking* student-respondents were randomly selected from each of the three bigger schools/colleges of the university prorating their number according to their

respective population. To elaborate further, the researchers used the Slovin's formula in determining the sample size they needed in the study.

Table 1 illustrates how this was carried out.

Table 1

Distribution of Student-Respondents of the Three Bigger Schools/Colleges

School/College	Total Population	Proportional Allocation Percentage	Sample Size
Dentistry	596	33.81	110
Medical Technology	574	32.56	106
Pharmacy	593	33.63	110
TOTAL	1763	100.00	326

The table reveals that there are 596 total freshman college students taking up dentistry, 574 Medical Technology students, and 593 Pharmacy students. The proportional allocations for each School/College were computed to assign individual sample size for each. Thus, a total of 326 student-respondents as total sample size corresponding to 110 for each School of Dentistry and School of Pharmacy and 106 for the College of Medical Technology were computed following the Slovin's formula with proportional allocation.

Research Instruments

The instruments that were used to analyze the data needed in this study were survey forms and written outputs of the student-respondents. Contrastive Hypothesis Analysis with Error analysis are the most direct ways and the most widely used instruments in studying errors in any written discourse. Corder (1967, 1974) as cited in Abi Samra (2003) mentioned that in diagnosing errors in L2 learners' written outputs should be governed by the fact that "errors" should be true or absolute. In realizing this, there should be a clear distinction between the L2 learners' mistakes or slips and errors. The process of drawing out the distinctions between slips and errors could be carried out through Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. On the other hand, Error Analysis technique is an explicit method of examining, describing, and interpreting the errors. Error analysis is an alternative to descriptive analysis (Corder, et al., 1974). James's

Method (1988) on error analysis concentrates on three categories of error, namely: Interlanguage interference, Intralingual Errors, and Induced Errors. The first type was the basis of the researcher in identifying the errors in the written outputs of the student-respondents since what are determined are Filipino to English transfer errors.

Data Gathering Procedure

There are basically two types of data collection procedures namely: Spontaneous or unplanned data and elicited procedures (Ellis, 2008). The researcher used the former for it dwells on free written compositions while the latter on controlled written compositions (translation).

The following steps in the data gathering and analysis were carried out in this research:

1. The survey forms and paragraph composition paper were distributed to the Communication Skills 12 teachers of the three bigger schools/colleges.
2. The students were asked to fill in the survey form and accomplish writing task sheet 1. The researcher did not give a specific topic to write about to allow student-respondents to freely write their ideas in a spontaneous manner.
3. On the second meeting, the CS 12 teachers returned to their students the accomplished writing task sheet 1 with the writing task sheet 2 for rewriting and checking of possible errors committed in the first writing task.
4. The survey forms and the accomplished writing task sheets were returned to the researcher for analysis. The two written compositions were checked and analyzed to discriminate between slips and true errors and for possible transfer errors.
5. The researcher identified the different types of transfer errors present, which were recurring in the student-respondents' outputs. Frequency of occurrence is regarded as a distinctive point in error analysis (Ellis, 2008) Frequency is crucial in EA since it is the recurring errors that are perceived to be correct by second language learners.
6. The identified errors were tabulated to identify their extent of occurrence in the written outputs of the student-respondents. Factors that could possibly explain the occurrence of these transfer errors were also described according to student-respondents' characteristics.
7. From the findings, the researcher suggested possible implications of the study to the Senior High School English Curriculum of the K to 12 Program.

Results

Characteristics of the Student- Respondents

The respondents were randomly and purposely selected from the freshman college students of the School of Dentistry, the College of Medical Technology, and the School of Pharmacy enrolled for the second semester.

Gender

Out of 326 respondents, 252 or 77.3 percent were female while only 74 or 22.7 percent were male. This shows that majority of the respondents were female which is a reflection of the actual characteristic of the students in the university, which is female dominated.

Type of high school

Majority of the respondents of the study completed high school from private institutions with 265 or 81.3 percent out of 326-sample population. Only 61 or 18.7 percent came from public schools. Since the university, where the samples were from is a private institution, majority of the students enrolled are from private high schools, too. This is indicative of the kind of clientele the university caters mostly to.

School/ College

Table 2

Distribution of the Student-Respondents According to School/College

School/College	f	%
Dentistry	110	33.81
Med Tech	106	32.56
Pharmacy	110	33.63
Total	326	100.0

As shown in Table 2, the School of Dentistry and the College of Medical Technology had both 110 students and 33.7 percent each of the total number of respondents while the School of Pharmacy consisted of 106 students or 32.5 percent.

Both the College of Dentistry and the School of Pharmacy have a total number of populations of 596 and 593 respectively, closely followed by the College of Medical

Technology with 574. When these numbers were statistically treated following proportional allocations, both the College of Dentistry and School of Pharmacy yielded the same number of sample size of 110 while the College of Medical Technology had only 106.

Types of Transfer Errors

After reading and analyzing the respondents’ written outputs, four types of transfer errors emerged as shown in Table 3.

It can be gleaned from the table that there are four identified types of transfer errors from the student-respondents compositions namely: Grammatical, Lexical, Semantic and Mechanics. Two examples for each subtype/description have been provided to further understand how the two languages differ in terms of their nature and distinct features.

Language transfers in the compositions of second language learners are only one-third of their deviant sentences (George, 1971, as cited in Richards, 2015). Grammatical errors that have generally shown three subtypes speak highly of the innate nature and features of L1 in contrast to L2.

Table 3

Types of Transfer Errors in the Student-Respondents’ Compositions

Types	Sub-Types/ Description of Errors	Examples
Grammatical	1. Affixing verbs	<i>1. It amaze and amuse me at the same time.</i>
	2. Shift in pronoun use in terms of gender	<i>2. They giving advice...</i>
	3. Use of preposition	<i>3. My mother... He has plenty of things to do...</i>
		<i>4. Robert has her notebook.</i>

		<p>5. <i>Sometimes, we face problems regarding to our friend.</i></p> <p>6. <i>...we are on the classroom.</i></p>
Lexical	Wrong choice of word	<p>1. <i>I want to take care of people who have sick.</i></p> <p>2. <i>... blaming the government because of their slow leadership.</i></p>
	Literal translation	<p>1. <i>I love working out myself.</i></p> <p>2. <i>... where all my sacrifices and hardwork will be just a trash.</i></p>
Semantic		
Mechanics	Error in spelling brought about by phonological difference	<p>1. <i>I am pond of doing it, especially when I'm bored.</i></p> <p>2. <i>I feel comfortable with my classmates.</i></p>

Since grammatical items are generic in almost all languages, it is observable that both L1 and L2 have these similarities; however, these items when put into use as in a written discourse could be evident of certain linguistic transfers.

For instance, affixation of verbs in L1 is different in L2. L1's inflection of verbs is through repeating a syllable of the prefix coupled with a change of a grapheme, dependent of the present tense or the future tense; for example, the basic form *laba* when in the past form is *naglaba* or *nilabahan*; future form is *maglalaba*. On the other hand, it is distinct in L2 that

inflection is only done through the process of adding or replacement. Addition is applicable for regular verbs, while for irregular ones, replacement. For instance, the verbs *dance* and *interpret* to *danced* and *interpreted*, respectively. Replacement is selective; verbs such as *run* to *ran*, *come* to *came*, *do* to *did* among others form their past by replacing the original with an entirely new form. Moreover, the examples cited show that in L2, affixation is only suffixing while in L1, it is prefixing and in some instances, both prefixing and suffixing. Compounding of verbs in L2 is also indicative of a change in aspect such as the perfect, the progressive and the perfect-progressive. Aspects are used in L2 to further specify tense. In L1, tense intensification is brought about by inclusion of words that indicate time. A sentence in English that contains two past actions, one in the earlier past and the other, a later past is illustrated in this sentence: *Zeny had washed the clothes when she heard Rica's cry*. The sentence shows that *Zeny* was already done washing the clothes when she heard *Rica* crying. In L1, this is illustrated in this sentence: *Tapos nang maglaba si Zeny nang marinig niya ang pag-iyak ni Rica*. The words, *tapos nang*, *and nang* are conjunctions in L1 that are not part of the verbs but are used to specify time of actions. The examples and explanations implicitly explain that most Filipino learners of English may commit malformation of verbs considering the simplicity in inflecting and changing tense and aspects in L1 compared to L2 and in other circumstances, absent categories.

As to pronouns, L1's pronoun is not gender sensitive and rather generic, thus the L2 learner was found to have committed of this confusing use in their written compositions such as the noun *mother* expressed as *he* and *Robert* as *her*.

Prepositions in L1 are very few compared to L2 wherein the variety and specificity of the use of prepositions in L2 is contributory to the Filipino L2 learner's difficulty in using prepositions, thus, leading to erroneous use. The prepositions, *in*, *on* and *at*, can be used in three varied ways to determine the position of an object placed in a corner; thus, the combinations: *in a corner*; *at a corner*; *and on a corner*. On the contrary, in L1, this is only expressible in *sa* as in, *sa sulok*.

Wrong choice of word is attributed to the fact that when an L2 learner is vocabulary deficient, he/she may have the tendency to use a "more" familiar word or one that sounds similar to the correct word to express a thought, and thus, neglect accuracy of the proper use of the word. In table two, the words; *sick* and *slow* were inappropriately used for *illnesses* and *poor* respectively.

Language equivalence perhaps is the issue behind literal translations in the written compositions of student respondents. What is expressed idiomatically in L1 may be expressed

literally in L2 or vice versa (Larson, 2008). The idiom *magbuhat ng sariling bangko* is translated by most Filipinos as *carry my own bench*, when it is instead, *tooting my own horn*, in Standard English. Another is the idiomatic expression for *matigas ang ulo* to *hardheaded*, when it is apparently, *stubborn* or *bullheaded*.

Sound production differences of certain graphemes or total absence of phonological sounds from L1 to L2 could be attributed to malformation of words, when writing in L2. Examples cited in Table 2 are common in the student-respondents' written outputs.

Extent of Occurrence of Transfer Errors

The frequency and percentage distribution of the extent of occurrence and non-occurrence of each type of transfer errors in the student-respondents written outputs are shown in Table 4 below.

Table 4

Extent of Occurrence of Each Type of Transfer Errors in the Student-Respondents' Compositions

Extent of Occurrence	Type of Transfer Errors							
	Grammatical		Lexical		Semantic		Mechanics	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Occurrence	2	7	1	3	1	4	6	1
Non-Occurrence	9	7	1	6	3	2	9	8
	8	.	9	.	9	.	.	.
		3		5		6		1
Non-Occurrence	3	1	2	6	1	5		8
	8	1	0	3	8	7	2	1
		.	7	.	7	.	6	.
		7		5		4	7	9

Total	3	1	3	1	3	1	3	1
	2	0	2	0	2	0	2	0
	6	0	6	0	6	0	6	0
	
		0		0		0		0

Evidently, most of the students' transfer errors were grammatical in nature with 298 or 77.3 percent of occurrence followed by Semantic with 139 or 42.6 percent of occurrence, then Lexical with 119 or 36.5 percent. The least number occurred in Mechanics with only 69 or 18.1 percent.

Grammatical errors were significantly shown to be most occurring of the four types of errors. It could be inferred through the samples cited in Table 3 that Filipino L2 learners frequently commit these kinds of errors.

James (1988) mentioned in his study that the most prevalent errors in writing in the target language (TL) committed by learners are grammatical in nature. These grammar points include: the use of prepositions and subject verb agreement.

1.3. Comparison of the Extent of Occurrence of Each Type of Transfer Errors of the Student-Respondents When Grouped According to their Characteristics.

The frequency and percentage distribution of the extent of occurrence of each type of transfer errors found in the student-respondents' outputs were compared according to their characteristics and shown in Table 5.

By gender

Table 5

Comparison of the Extent of Occurrence of Each Type of Transfer Errors by Gender

Type of Error	Gender	Mean	S.D.	t-value	p-value	Sig
Grammatical Error	Male	2.973	2.2993	-1.522	P = 0.129> 0.05	NS
	Female	3.579	3.1920			
Lexical Error	Male	.473	.6869	.137	P = 0.891> 0.05	NS
	Female	.460	.6989			
Semantic Error	Male	.905	1.1955	.855	P = 0.393> 0.05	NS
	Female	.766	1.2452			

Error	in	Male	.203	.4373	-.176	P = 0.861> 0.05	NS
Mechanics		Female	.214	.5144			

Tabular values show that there is no significant difference in the number or extent of errors committed by the males and females as shown by the p-values that are greater than 0.05 level of significance. However, the females yielded an obtained mean of 3.579 while males an obtained mean of 2.973 on grammatical errors and the males with an obtained mean of .905 while the females with an obtained mean of .766 on semantic errors.

Irawan (2003), Greensdale and Felix-Brasdefer (2006), and Sanchez-Lobato, et al. (2002) as cited by Ibañez-Moreno and Cerezo (2011), showed that females obtained better results in their English production than the males. The same was opined by Bacang et al (2019) in their discourse analysis study with gender as construct. However, this was contradicted by Agustín-Lach (2009), who said that gender is not a determining factor that could affect English language proficiency.

By type of high school

Table 6

Comparison of the Extent of Occurrence of Each Type of Transfer Errors by Type of High School

Type of Error	Type of High School	Mean	S.D.	t-value	p-value	Sig
Grammatical Error	Private	3.419	3.0380	-.284	P = 0.776> 0.05	NS
	Public	3.541	2.9641			
Lexical Error	Private	.442	.6610	-1.174	P = 0.241> 0.05	NS
	Public	.557	.8271			
Semantic Error	Private	.804	1.2640	.190	P = 0.850> 0.05	NS
	Public	.770	1.1014			
Mechanics	Private	.211	.5155	-.025	P = 0.980> 0.05	NS
	Public	.213	.4129			

Table 6 shows that there is no significant difference in the number or extent of errors committed by student- respondents based on the type of high school they graduated from through the p-values that are greater than the 0.05 level of significance. This implies that both graduates of the two types of high schools had the same extent of transfer errors in their written outputs.

By school/college

Table 7

Comparison of the Extent of Errors of the Student-Respondents by School/College

Type of Error	School/College	Mean	S.D.	F-value	p-value	Sig
Grammatical Error	Dentistry	2.518	2.0973	12.538	P = 0.000	VS
	Med. Tech.	4.500	3.1510			
	Pharmacy	3.345	3.3577			
	Total	3.442	3.0201			
Lexical Error	Dentistry	.427	.6561	1.441	P = 0.238	NS
	Med. Tech.	.557	.7182			
	Pharmacy	.409	.7077			
	Total	.463	.6952			
Semantic Error	Dentistry	1.100	1.3877	5.263	P = 0.006	VS
	Med. Tech.	.689	1.1072			
	Pharmacy	.600	1.1349			
	Total	.798	1.2337			
Errors in Mechanics	Dentistry	.227	.5851	.332	P = 0.718	NS
	Med. Tech.	.179	.4093			
	Pharmacy	.227	.4820			
	Total	.212	.4974			

The table reveals that there is a very significant difference among the three bigger schools/colleges of the university in the extent of errors in the areas of Grammar and Semantics since p-values are less than 0.01 level of significance. These are evident between the School of Dentistry and the School of Pharmacy, School of Dentistry and College of Medical Technology, and School of Pharmacy and College of Medical Technology for Grammatical Errors. Under Semantic Errors, there is a very significant difference between the School of Dentistry and the School of Pharmacy and the School of Dentistry and the College of Medical Technology.

The student-respondents from the College of Medical Technology yielded 4.500 as average extent of transfer errors in grammar; and the School of Dentistry with an average of 1.100 as mean on semantic errors.

These three bigger schools/colleges are known in the university as having competent students. Despite the notion, they, like all other second language learners, also have deviations in their English sentence constructions. However, it poses the idea that these three schools/colleges may have varying needs in the reinforcement of their second language learning. The School of Dentistry students should receive more instruction and improved instructional materials for appropriate meaning construction and spelling, the College of Medical Technology on grammar and vocabulary building, while the School of Pharmacy on grammar and spelling.

Implications of the Findings of the Study for the English Curriculum of the Senior High School Program of the K to 12

This study identified, categorized, analyzed and explained the extent of occurrence of these transfer errors found existing in freshman college students' written compositions from the three bigger colleges of the CEU, to identify possible implications to the new K to 12 senior high school basic education curriculum. One of the mantras of this new curriculum states that a K to 12 graduate of the basic education should be ready for the world.

Today, Filipinos are known to have become citizens of the world. In every country there is a Filipino. Since English is the universal language, proficient and accurate use of it is a prime consideration for effective communication.

Equally important are the kind and characteristics of the 21st Century learners. 21st century learners are increasingly comfortable with globalization and its influence on work and

socialization. They are the most likely of any age group to identify that there are benefits and limitations to an ever-changing global and technological environment.

The 21st Century learner has an intimate relationship with the Internet. For them, the Internet is the gateway to their world – for communication, entertainment, relationship maintenance, social networking, and information gathering.

Lastly, the 21st Century learner is learning 21st century skills. The knowledge that students are increasingly expected to demonstrate is transforming. 21st century skills include: information and communication technology (ICT) literacy, the ability to think and solve problems, interpersonal and self-directional skills, global awareness, and financial, economic, business, and civic literacy. Most importantly, students are learning “how to *keep learning* continually throughout their lives.” (Learning for the 21st Century: A Report and Mile Guide for 21st Century Skills,” Tuscan, Arizona, 2002), then requiring English as a Second Language to be more responsive in improving the students’ level of motivation and self-efficacy (Torres and Alieto, 2019).

This study posed the following implications that may be useful in strengthening the curriculum for the added two years of Basic Education as stipulated in the list of competencies for grades 11 and 12:

1. The need for subjects in Senior High School English to start with a review of the basic rules of using verbs, pronouns and prepositions, focusing on inflections, in the case of verbs; gender substitution for pronouns; and situations that dictate the use of specific prepositions in sentences. All these are basic in any lesson on writing especially professional correspondence
2. The need for textbooks and other instructional materials on these subjects to include comprehensive activities and exercises on the application of these rules to achieve accuracy for better proficiency.
3. The need for teachers handling the subjects to undergo re-training on the teaching of grammar and in-service seminars on second language acquisition and learning to gain insights on how to deal with language teaching to ESL learners
4. The importance of support from School administrators and other stakeholders of activities geared towards mastery/improved proficiency in English such as Grammar Accuracy Contests, Essay Writing Contests among others.
5. The need to further strengthen these areas in the syllabus, textbooks, and actual teaching, especially in relation to academic and professional writing where Mechanics

is important, as well as appropriate choice of technical terms and expressions.

6. The benefit of administering a senior high school English proficiency test to classify students according to their level of knowledge on L2. This may form as part of a general admission test. Classifying students by English proficiency will provide teachers handling each group definite directions as to the strategies they need to adopt in their classes

Insights

Conclusion

Based on the findings, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. Transfer errors from Filipino to English do occur in writing among college students.
2. The first year college students have only an average skill in grammar.
3. Students' language skills may vary according to the course they are taking.

Recommendations

In the light of the conclusions made in this study, the researcher recommends the following:

1. For language curriculum planners of the K to 12 program, to consider the implications in this study in their preparation/ revision of the Senior High School curriculum.
2. For the Basic Education teachers and college instructors of English to intensify the teaching of grammar, reading comprehension to reconcile meanings and enrich vocabulary loading, and drill students on correct pronunciation to reconcile lapses in spelling.
3. For the Filipino learners to device strategies that would help in the efficient acquisition and learning of L2.
4. For instructional materials developers, to utilize the findings of this study in developing IM's that are relevant to the needs of the learners to be more linguistically equipped and competent in the Senior High School English.
5. Finally, for the future researchers to explore also the intralingual errors that comprise the majority of the errors of the ESL learners' written compositions. Moreover, the researcher recommends the expert utilization of Contrastive Analysis in order to create a clear cut between slips and true errors through administration of a series of writing tasks to learners.

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Illocutionary Acts in the 2016 USA Presidential Debates

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Abstract

The presidential election is becoming one out of the most discussed issues in all around the world, including the 2016 United States of America presidential election. In this case, this 2016 The United States of America presidential election denotes the differences between male and female presidential candidates in delivering as well as declaring their ideas, vision, mission and thoughts through numerous presidential debates. The present study is aimed at identifying the illocutionary acts used by both presidential candidates in the 2016 USA presidential debates. For this purpose, Bach and Harnish's theory on illocutionary acts is used to scrutinize the illocutionary forces and acts in the debates. The data were collected by downloading from youtube and other social media. The data were transcribed and analyzed using Bach and Harnish's principles of analyzing illocutionary acts. The study finds that both presidential candidates used different illocutionary acts in order to win the votes of American citizens. Four types of illocutionary acts were found; commissive, directive, constative, and acknowledgment. The successful candidate was found to have used more commissive acts while the unsuccessful candidate used more acknowledgment acts.

Keywords: *illocutionary acts, commissive acts, presidential debates, political discourse*

Introduction

The United States of America is a country that is a political superpower obviously led by a great government and a president. In recent years, the political diction of the president has become the most discussed issue around the world. Therefore, the presidential candidates ought to have huge efforts, strong visions as well as clear arguments along the election periods. One of the biggest challenges faced by the USA presidential candidates is the way they deliver their thoughts, ideas, visions, missions and arguments along the election periods are highly considered by all American citizens as the voters in the 2016 USA presidential election. The election was done through sequences of speeches and debates of both presidential candidates, i.e. Donald Trump and Hillary Clinton. The 2016 of the United States of America presidential debates are categorized special presidential debates, in which the candidates of these presidential debates are male and female. Further, these debates of both presidential candidates then gave rise to the crucial issue of the different ways of how males and females deliver their ideas and arguments.

Regarding the process of conveying and delivering the ideas, presidential candidates may have different ways to produce their utterances. Everyone, whether man or woman has his or her own way in using illocutionary acts in an effort to direct the interlocutor to do or to feel something through his or her utterances. Additionally, the utterance whether formal or non-formal speech and debate frequently has an intended meaning used by each presidential candidate to implicitly deliver his or her idea to his or her audiences as well as opponent. In a narrower sense, this kind of situation is commonly known as illocutionary acts that are frequently used in formal and non-formal communication. In general, illocutionary act is divided into certain categories of illocutionary acts, thus the presidential candidates who are male and female in the 2016 USA presidential election may produce different kinds of illocutionary acts. Therefore, the difference gender in the 2016 of the USA presidential debates becomes the main issue in this paper, in which the researcher wants to reveal kind illocutionary acts uttered both presidential candidates. Therefore, this paper aims at identifying and analysing the illocutionary acts uttered by both presidential candidates in the 2016 USA presidential debates.

Illocutionary Act

Illocutionary Acts in General

In terms of language, speech act holds a crucial role in conveying information from the speaker to his interlocutor. In a narrower sense, Yule (1966: 47) states it is the nature of speech act that people express themselves; people not only produce utterances containing grammatical structures and words but also perform actions via those utterances. Simply, it can be stated speech act refers to the term in which the speaker has more than one intentions along delivering his or her information, which are to convey his ideas and argumentation as well as to make his or her interlocutor to do something for the speaker. Additionally, Talbot (1998:140) asserts that men and women happen to have different interactional styles and misunderstandings occur because they are not aware of them. In other words, men and women principally have their own preference way of communicating and interacting. Thus, it can be concluded that men and women have their own way in using speech act when delivering their ideas and arguments. Therefore, the 2016 USA presidential candidates possessed different gender and somehow it could affect the way they use speech act regarding to their own preference way of communicating used by man and woman, who are Donald Trump and Hillary Clinton.

Principally, speech acts constitute as the mostly discussed theories that already analysed by numbers of well-known experts, i.e. J.L. Austin in *How to Do Things with Words*, J.R. Searle in *Speech Acts* as well as Bach and Harnish in *Linguistic Communication and Speech Acts*. Factually, the theories regarding to speech acts that have been mentioned by these experts are all the same. Nevertheless, Bach and Harnish's theory of speech acts is more specific, in which Bach and Harnish provided the specific speech acts schema (SAS) as well as simplified the classification of illocutionary acts into numbers of specific categories and of course with the exact examples. Likewise, *S* is the speaker, *H* is the hearer, *e* is an expression (commonly a sentence) in the language *L*, *C* is the context of the utterance, thus it could be schematized as follows:

Utterance Acts : *S* utters *e* from *L* to *H* in *C*

Locutionary Acts : *S* utters to *H* in *C*

Illocutionary Acts : *S* does such-and-such in *C*

Perlocutionary Acts : *S* affects *H* in certain way (Bach & Harnish, 1979: 3).

The abovementioned schema of speech acts that provided by Bach & Harnish denotes the differences between utterance acts, locutionary acts, illocutionary acts as well as perlocutionary acts. In other words, whenever the speaker utters the sentence and the sentence affects the

hearer to feel something or even to do something, thus the sentence that uttered by the speaker is constituted as perlocutionary act.

In a narrower sense, speech acts are categorized into three main types, namely locution, illocution and perlocution (Levinson, 1983:236). In other words, Austin (1962:102) asserts that the locutionary act can similarly be distinguished in that “he said that” from the illocutionary act “he argued that” and the perlocutionary act “he convinced me that” Given to these abovementioned definitions about speech act, it can be summarized that the term speech act is divided into three types, namely locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. In a narrower sense, locution refers to the phrase or the sentence that has literal meaning, illocution refers to the phrase or the sentence that has more than one meaning, which is literal meaning and implicit meaning in order to make the hearer or the interlocutor to do something, whereas perlocution refers to the feeling of the hearer or the interlocutor toward the phrase or the sentence that has been produced by the speaker. Thus, all of those three types of speech act can be accurately distinguished between one another. However, illocutionary act is one out of the three types of speech act that most dominantly used both the speaker and the interlocutor in delivering as well as conveying their ideas and arguments. In simple way, illocutionary acts generally divided into four main types, namely constatives, directives, commissives and acknowledgement (Bach & Harnish, 1979: 39).

In this way, illocutionary acts signify as the most dominantly acts produced by the speaker and the interlocutor than locutionary acts and perlocutionary acts. Furthermore, illocutionary acts uttered by the speaker contains numbers of meanings that can be both explicitly and implicitly uttered to the interlocutor. In addition, there are numerous meanings implied that appeared in illocutionary acts uttered by the speaker, i.e. apologizing, thanking, confirming, interrogating, describing, responding, denying and promising. All of these explicit and implicit meaning are used by the speaker in arguing his or her arguments both in formal and non-formal situations in politics, economics as well as education, such as in daily conversation, small talk in reality show, election speeches, presidential debates as well as TV series' debates. Therefore, illocutionary acts necessitate to be analysed due to the fact of its speciality to examine the exact meaning of explicitly and implicitly meaning uttered by the speaker.

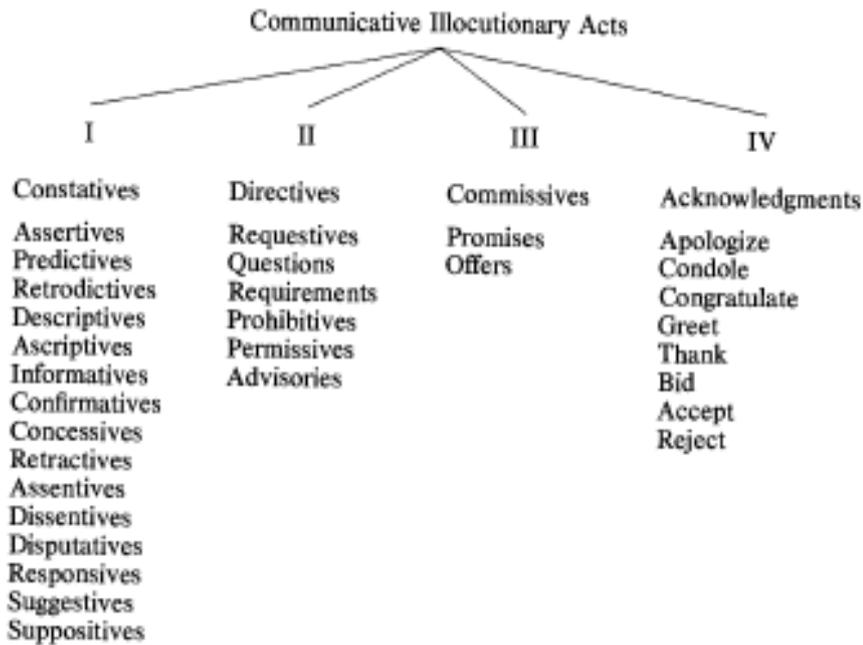


Figure 1. Classification of Communicative Illocutionary Acts (Bach & Harnish, 1979: 41).

Given to the abovementioned figure, the four branches of illocutionary acts are constatives, directives, commissives and acknowledgement. In this sense, each branch is categorized into numbers of types. Constative is divided into *assertives*, *predictives*, *retrodictives*, *descriptives*, *ascriptive*, *informative*, *confirmatives*, *concessives*, *retractivess*, *assentives*, *disputatives*, *responsive*, *suggestive* and *suppositives*, for instance, “nowadays, the issue of the climate change is an interesting topic to be discussed in whole wide world.” (informative). Moreover, directive is categorized into *requestive*, *question*, *requirement*, *prohibitive*, *permissive* and *advisory*, for instance, “really? are you sure?” (question). Commissive is divided into *promise* and *offer* for instance, “I promise that I could be your bestfriend.” (promise). Furthermore, acknowledgement is categorized into *apology*, *condole*, *congratulate*, *greet*, *thank*, *bid*, *accept* and *reject*, for instance, “thank you for everything.” (thank). To sum up, all these kinds of illocutionary acts have its own intentions depend on the situation and the condition where the speaker uttered the utterance. Thus, in everyday interaction, men and women obviously used different way of communication, includes different types of speech acts in effort to uttering their ideas and argumentations.

Illocutionary Acts in Political Speeches

Generally, speech acts can be identified in every single sentence that uttered by the speaker, even in formal and non-formal speeches. With regards to political speeches and debates, politicians deliver their arguments in effort to utter some intended meanings to the hearers. In a narrower sense, Medriano & De Vera (2019:9) stated that political speech is not a speech act but a sequence or series of speech acts. Furthermore, it can be stated political speeches contains not only a single speech acts but also numerous kinds of speech acts. Political speeches or political debates and speech act are two intertwined aspects that cannot be separated to one another. A political speech is not necessarily a success because of the correctness of truth; rather it may be a matter of presenting arguments (Beard, 2000:18). Moreover, political speeches as well as political debates obviously require the use of certain speech act by the politicians, especially illocutionary act in order to win the election or win the arguments. Safwat (2015:700) proposes that politicians in this sense are the group of people who are being paid for their (political) activities, and who are being elected or appointed as the central players in the politics. In other word, politician can be whoever who dedicated himself or herself to manage as well develop government and country, one of which is a president. Additionally, Ouhenia and Lahlou (2017:1) argue that presidential candidates tend to play on words and make use of their language skill to create an idealistic of them in order to impress the audience and win their voices.

Furthermore, Dylgjeri (2017:21) also points out that most of politicians are unaware of the fact that there is a link between what is said, what is meant and the action conveyed by what is said. Thus, it can be stated that both presidential debates and speech acts, especially illocutionary acts are interrelated, in which the presidential candidates used illocutionary acts as their strategy to win the votes of the voters who are all citizens of the country.

Methods

This study applies descriptive qualitative research design that is used to identify and analyze the kinds of illocutionary acts used by presidential candidates in the 2016 USA presidential debates.

Resources of Data

The resources of data of this paper were the corpus that were taken in form of words, phrases and sentences that uttered by both presidential candidates along first and the second of

the 2016 USA presidential debates. Furthermore, the first and the second presidential debates were held in two different places, which were Hofstra University on September 26th 2016 and Washington University on October 10th 2016. Furthermore, these presidential debates were selected to be analysed due to the fact that both of the presidential candidates strongly claim their own visions, missions as well as arguments along these presidential debate periods.

Data collection

The data were gathered by means of numerous ways, such as downloaded, watching, reading and also marking. In this way, the presidential debates videos and transcriptions were downloaded from Youtube (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=855Am6ovK7s>) and website (<https://www.politico.com/story/2016/10/2016-presidential-debate-transcript-229516>). Furthermore, the first and the second presidential debates videos were watched while reading the transcriptions of the presidential debates numerous times. In a nutshell, the debates videos were validated by matching the debates videos with the written debates that were taken from the websites. Therefore, after watching and reading the videos and the transcriptions, all of the language form and verbal expression in form of words, phrases and sentences indicate illocutionary acts uttered by both presidential candidates in the first and the second presidential debates were marked in effort to classify to which illocutionary acts that the words, phrases and sentences uttered by both presidential candidates are belong to both in the first and the second presidential debates.

Data analysis

Principally, after collecting the data, there were some procedures used to analyze the data, which were decode the data, select and determine as well as classify the data. Additionally, the data were decoded by means of marking the words, phrases and sentences indicate illocutionary acts using different colours of pens. Furthermore, the upcoming procedure was selected and determined all of the data that have been mark in order to classify words, phrases and sentences indicate illocutionary acts into certain kinds of illocutionary acts. Moreover, the data in form of words, phrases and sentences that uttered by both presidential candidates then classified into four kinds of illocutionary acts followed with the explanation as well as the extract of each kind of illocutionary acts.

Findings and Discussion

This section of this paper provides three main issues, which are identification of illocutionary acts, description of illocutionary acts and explanation of illocutionary acts.

Identification of Illocutionary Acts

Illocutionary acts appeared as the most dominantly acts used by the speaker and the interlocutor both in formal and non-formal situations. Furthermore, this study revealed the massiveness used of illocutionary acts by both male and female presidential candidates, Donald Trump and Hillary Clinton in the first and the second presidential debates in the 2016 USA presidential debates. In narrower sense, the data tabulation below is the result of illocutionary acts in USA presidential debates between Donald Trump and Hillary Clinton, as follows:

Table 4.1.1 Illocutionary Acts in the First and Second Debates in the 2016 USA Presidential Debates

No.	Category	Donald Trump		Hillary Clinton	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1.	Commissive	17	24%	11	16%
2.	Directive	2	2%	2	2%
3.	Constative	13	18%	9	13%
4.	Acknowledgment	5	7%	12	17%

Description of Illocutionary Acts

Illocutionary acts that are found in the 2016 USA presidential debates generally comprises four acts, such as commissive, directive, constative, and acknowledgment acts. The successful candidate was found to have used more commissive acts while the unsuccessful candidate used more acknowledgment acts.

Commissive

Commissive refers to the act of promising to do certain acts to others by means of her or his arguments. Additionally, Bach and Harnish (1979:49) states that commissives are acts of obligating or of proposing to obligate oneself to do something specified in the propositional content, which may also specify conditions under what the deed to be done or does not to be done. In a narrower sense, commissive commonly used by the politicians, especially presidential candidate to convey their promises regarding to develop the country

in effort to win the election. Moreover, Donald Trump used 24% of commissive and Hillary Clinton also used 16% commissive along delivering arguments in the debates. Generally, there are two kinds of commissive, namely promise and offer (Bach and Harnish, 1979:41). However, this paper reveals that both presidential candidates only used one kind of commissive, which are promise.

Promise

Promise is the act of obligating the speaker himself to do something as well as to repair certain conditions in the future (Bach and Harnish, 1979:50). In this sense, both presidential candidates used promise as one out of numbers strategy to get the votes from the audiences as well as all the American citizens.

Excerpt

Clinton: “And I can pledged to you tonight that this is the America that I will serve if I’, so fortunate enough to become your president.”

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the second presidential debate which is constitutes as commissive, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Additionally, commissive refers to the illocutionary act that comprises promise. In this case, Hillary Clinton promises to all audiences in the second presidential debate, especially all Americans. Hillary Clinton promises that she will do everything that she can be to make America the superpower country. Moreover, Hillary Clinton also promises that she will sacrifice her time and energy to manage and maintain America.

Directive

Principally, directive is one out of several kinds of illocutionary acts used by both presidential candidates in 2016 USA presidential debates. Furthermore, Bach and Harnish (1979:41) point out that directive expresses the speaker's attitude toward some prospective action by the hearer and his intention that his utterance, or the attitude it expresses, be taken as a reason for the hearer's action. In general, directive is then categorized into six categories, namely, requestive, question, requirement, prohibitive, permissive and advisory. Meanwhile, both presidential candidates in 2016 USA presidential debates were used only two categories of directive illocutionary acts, which were prohibitive and questions. In this sense, Donald Trump used 2% of directive and Hillary Clinton also used 2% directive along delivering arguments in the debates.

Prohibitive

Bach and Harnish (1979:49) assert that prohibitive is essentially requirements that the hearer not do a certain thing.

Excerpt

Trump: “Now, look, I’m a great believer in all forms of energy, but we’re putting a lot people out of work. Our energy policies are disaster. Our country is losing so much in terms of energy, in terms of paying off our debt. You can’t do what you’re looking to do with \$20 trillion in debt.”

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the first presidential debate which is constitutes as directive, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Additionally, directive refers to the illocutionary act that comprises prohibitive. In this instance, Donald Trump prohibits his opponent, Hillary Clinton to realizing her plan if she wins the votes to be the next president. Donald Trump assumes that the regulations which made by the Secretary Hillary Clinton are disaster that harm the Americans, thus, Donald Trump strongly prohibits Hillary Clinton to do her plan.

Questioning

Question is an act used to ask the interlocutor regarding to certain issues. However, question in the 2016 USA presidential debates tends to interrogate his or her opponent through several statements.

Excerpt

Clinton: “Do the thousands of people that you have stiffed over the course of your business not deserve some kind of apology from someone who has taken their labour, taken the goods that they produced, and then refused to pay them?”

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the first presidential debates which is constitutes as directive, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Additionally, directive refers to the illocutionary act that comprises such kind of question. In this case, Hillary Clinton asks and interrogates Donald Trump regarding to the issue of the workers who stiffed by him. Hillary Clinton asks and interrogates Donald Trump whether or not the workers who didn’t paid by him didn’t deserve apology.

Constative

Basically, constative is one out of several kinds of illocutionary acts used by both presidential candidates in 2016 USA presidential debates. Bach and Harnish (1979:42) argue that constative is the expression of a belief, together with the expression of an intention that the hearer form (or continue to hold) a like belief. In general, constative is categorized into twelve categories, namely, assertive, predictive, retrodictive, descriptive, ascriptive, informative, confirmative, concessive, retradictive, assentive, dissentive, disputative and responsive. However, both presidential candidates in 2016 USA presidential debates were used only four categories of constative illocutionary acts, which were informative, retractive, assentive and responsive. In this case, Donald Trump used 18% of constative and Hillary Clinton also used 13% constative along delivering arguments in the debates.

Informative

Informative refers to act of reveal, announce, notify as well as report the interlocutor regarding certain facts.

Excerpt

Clinton: "Nine million people lost their jobs. Five million people lost their homes. And \$13 trillion in family wealth was wiped out. Now, we have come back from that abyss. And it has not been easy.

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the first presidential debate which is constitutes as constative, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Furthermore, constative refers to the illocutionary act that constitute as confirmative. In this case, Hillary Clinton confirms that based on fact that America now is better than America in the past few years. Hillary Clinton simply responds and confirms to Donald Trump's arguments through comparing the recent situation in America and the situation where millions of people have to lose their jobs and homes.

Retractive

Retractive is an act of denying and repudiating the previous statement that uttered by the interlocutor.

Excerpt

Clinton: "Well, Donald, I know you live in your own reality, but that is not the facts."

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the first presidential debate which is constitutes as constative, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Additionally, constative refers to the illocutionary act that comprises

such kind of retractive. In this case, Hillary Clinton denies and repudiates Donald Trump's previous argument about NAFTA trade deal.

Assentive

Assentive refers to an act of accept and agree toward the preceding statement conveyed by the interlocutor.

Excerpt

Trump: "First of all, I agree, and a lot of people even within my own party want to give certain rights to people on watch lists and no – fly lists. I agree with you."

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the first presidential debates which is constitutes as constative, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Additionally, constative refers to the illocutionary act that comprises such kind of assentive. In this case, Donald Trump delivering the abovementioned sentences to simply agree to Hillary Clinton's previous statement regarding to the issue of retraining the police officers.

Responsive

Responsive is an act of answering, responding and retorting toward the previous arguments uttered by the interlocutor.

Excerpt

Trump: "The answer is, if she wins, I will absolutely support her."

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the first presidential debates which is constitutes as constative, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Additionally, constative refers to the illocutionary act that comprises such kind of responsive. In this case, Donald Trump responds toward the question that has been uttered by the host of the debate. Furthermore, the host question is that "Will you accept the outcome of the election?" Thus, Donald Trump briefly answers that he will accept the outcome of the election by supporting Hillary Clinton if she wins the election.

Acknowledgement

Basically, acknowledgement is one out of several kinds of illocutionary acts used by both presidential candidates in 2016 USA presidential debates. Bach and Harnish (1979:41) propose that acknowledgment expresses feeling regarding to the hearer or, in cases where the utterance is clearly perfunctory or formal, the speaker's intention that his utterance satisfy a social expectation to express certain feelings and his belief that it does. In general,

acknowledgement is categorized into seven categories, namely, apologize, condole, congratulate, greet, thank, bid, and accept. On the other hand, both presidential candidates in 2016 USA presidential debates were used only four categories of acknowledgement illocutionary acts, which were thank, apologize, condole and greet. In this case, Donald Trump used 7% of acknowledgement and Hillary Clinton also used 17% acknowledgement along delivering arguments in the debates.

Thank

Thank is an act expressing gratitude toward something as well as toward certain things done by the interlocutors to the speaker.

Excerpt

Clinton: "Well, thank you, Lester, and thanks to Hofstra for hosting us."

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the first presidential debate which is constitutes as acknowledgement, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Additionally, acknowledgement refers to the illocutionary act that conveying thank to others. In this sense, Hillary Clinton thanks the host of the debate, who is Lester Holt as well the venue of the debate, which is Hofstra University for facilitating her and Donald Trump in the first presidential debate.

Apologize

Apologize refers to an act that expressing regret for having harmed or bothered the interlocutor (Bach and Harnish, 1979:51).

Excerpt

Clinton: "Well, within hours I said I was sorry about the way I talked about that, because my argument is not with his supporters. It's with him and with the hateful and divisive campaign that he has run, and the inciting of the violence at his rallies, and the very brutal kinds of comments about not just women, but all Americans, all kinds of Americans." (P. 118)

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the second presidential debate which is constitutes as acknowledgement, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Furthermore, acknowledgement refers to the illocutionary act that expressing apologize to others. In this sense, Hillary Clinton delivering the abovementioned sentences in the second presidential debate to express her apologizes to all Americans regarding her rude arguments to Donald Trump along the debate. All of her rude arguments are totally intended to Donald Trump, due to the fact

that Hillary absolutely hates the way Donald Trump run the campaign trough some brutal and harsh comment about American citizens, especially women.

Condole

Condole is an act that expressing sympathy for the conditions faced by others that suffered some misfortune

Excerpt

Clinton: “There’s no doubt now that Russia has used cyber-attacks against all kinds of organizations in our country, and I am deeply concerned about this.”

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the first presidential debates which is constitutes as acknowledgement, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Additionally, acknowledgement refers to the illocutionary act that constitutes as condole and commiserate to others. In this case, Hillary Clinton expresses her commiserate feeling regarding to the situation in which Russia generally use cyber-attacks in order to steal the secrets of American, especially the government.

Greeting

Greeting refers to an act of expressing pleasure when the speaker meet or see someone (Bach and Harnish, 1979:51).

Excerpt

Clinton: “Finally, we tonight are on the stage together, Donald Trump and I. Donald, it’s good to be with you.”

The abovementioned excerpt is one of numbers of extract in the first presidential debate which is constitutes as acknowledgement, which is one out of four categorizes of illocutionary acts. Moreover, acknowledgement refers to the illocutionary act that used to greet others. In this sense, Hillary Clinton warmly greets her opponent, Donald Trump at the very beginning of the first debate.

Explanation of Illocutionary Acts

Generally, the result of description of illocutionary acts in the 2016 of USA presidential debates depicts that both of the presidential candidates used different kinds of illocutionary acts when delivering their ideas and arguments in the presidential debates. This paper depicts that Donald Trump dominantly used commissive illocutionary acts whereas Hillary Clinton dominantly used acknowledgement illocutionary acts. In this case, Donald Trump used 24% of commissive illocutionary acts while Hillary Clinton used 17% of acknowledgement

illocutionary acts in two presidential debates. Additionally, commissive illocutionary act used by presidential candidate, who is Donald Trump is considered as one out of numbers of his strategies to win the election. Commissive illocutionary act highly relates to the promises made by the speaker that is used to convince his or her interlocutors to do something as well to believe to the speaker. In this paper, Donald Trump obviously uttered commissive illocutionary acts to promise to all American citizens that under his authority, America can be great again. On the other hand, acknowledgement illocutionary act used by another presidential candidate, who is Hillary Clinton is considered as one out of several her strategies to win the votes to become the next president. Acknowledgement illocutionary act highly relates to the feeling regretting, apologizing, complimenting, thanking as well as greeting. In this paper, Hillary Clinton frequently uttered acknowledgement illocutionary acts to express her gratitude, apologies as well as commiserate feelings regarding to the current issues faced by the United States.

Furthermore, both of Donald Trump and Hillary Clinton also frequently used constative. Based on the tabulation data, it can be said that the second highest percentage used of illocutionary acts by Donald Trump is the use of constative 18% and Hillary Clinton is the use of commissive 16%. In narrower sense, Donald Trump also frequently used constative due to the fact that he attacks Hillary Clinton through evaluating the result of Hillary Clinton as a senator in the USA. On the other hand, Hillary Clinton also frequently used commissive in effort to declare his promises to all American citizens that she will manage and develop America due to the fact she is the first presidential candidates from Democrat party. Thus, Donald Trump also used constative as another strategy in gaining the votes whereas Hillary Clinton also used commissive as another strategy in gaining the votes from all American citizens. To sum up everything that has been stated above, it could be concluded that Donald Trump can win the vote as the next president of USA due to the fact he frequently used commissive illocutionary act that comprises the promises of the better America.

In a nutshell, the presidential elections commonly happened every five years in all of the countries in all around the world. There is no doubt that Indonesia is also one out of thousands of countries that conducted the presidential election every five years through campaign, speeches and debates. Globally, the presidential election can be done through numerous ways i.e. campaign, speeches as well as debates. Moreover, it is also can be concluded that the presidential election, especially the presidential debates done depends on its culture context where the election was held. Likewise in the 2016 USA presidential debates, the culture that possessed by people who lived in America is obviously western culture, in

which we all know that everyone who adopted west culture tends to be straightforward, brave and honest in delivering their ideas, statements and arguments in order to attack his or her opponent along the presidential debates. Nonetheless, it would be totally different to the 2019 Indonesia presidential election, the 2019 Indonesian presidential candidates tend to use the proper words in arguing to one another and still uphold the politeness along the debates. It is due to the fact that Indonesian people obviously possessed eastern culture, especially Indonesian culture which everyone is polite to others, speak in a low tone, using the proper words, and etc. Simply, it can be stated that the presidential debates are highly depends on the culture context where the debates were held.

Pedagogical Implication

Fundamentally, debate possessed both the positive as well as the negative impacts. In case of pedagogical implication, debate, especially the 2016 USA presidential debates provide numerous positive pedagogical implications for the students in teaching and learning process. In a narrower sense, the debates between Donald Trump and Hillary Clinton in effort to win the presidential election in the 2016 clearly provide numerous valuable pedagogical implications for the students. In other words, debate can be applied as the new method for students along the process of teaching and learning which also gives lots of valuable pedagogical implications, as follows:

1. Debate highly helps the students to stimulate their reading habits, in which every individual has to prepare their arguments, whether they are pro or contra to certain topics or issues, the positive as well as negative sides of the certain topics or issues and of course it only can be done through pre-reading activity;
2. Debate assists the students' mental to confidently speak up their mind in front of others and even in front of the ones who contra to their arguments; and
3. Debate obviously stimulates students' critical thinking through deeply analysed certain topic by using the proper language.

Conclusion

In general, every sentence that produced by the speaker obviously has such an intended meaning which also called as illocutionary act. Every sentence may comprise one or more intended meaning. These kind of situation also happened in the 2016 of USA presidential debates. Both of the presidential candidates have their own dominantly used illocutionary acts

to win the vote in the election. In these presidential debates, both of the presidential candidates generally used four kinds of illocutionary acts, which are commissive, directive, constative, and acknowledgment. On the other hand, Donald Trump commonly used commissive whereas Hillary Clinton frequently used acknowledgement. Simply, it can be concluded that the successful candidate who win the vote as the 2016 USA president, Donald Trump used more commissive while his opponent, Hillary Clinton used acknowledgement along their presidential debates.

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